





Insurrection in Rome.—Attack on the Quirinal Palace

GREAT EVENTS
IN
MODERN HISTORY:

COMPRISING THE MOST REMARKABLE

DISCOVERIES, CONQUESTS, REVOLUTIONS, GREAT BATTLES,

AND OTHER

THRILLING INCIDENTS,

CHIEFLY IN EUROPE AND AMERICA,

From the Commencement of the Sixteenth Century to the Present Time.

BY JOHN FROST, LL.D.

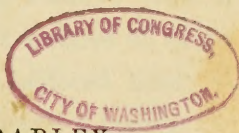
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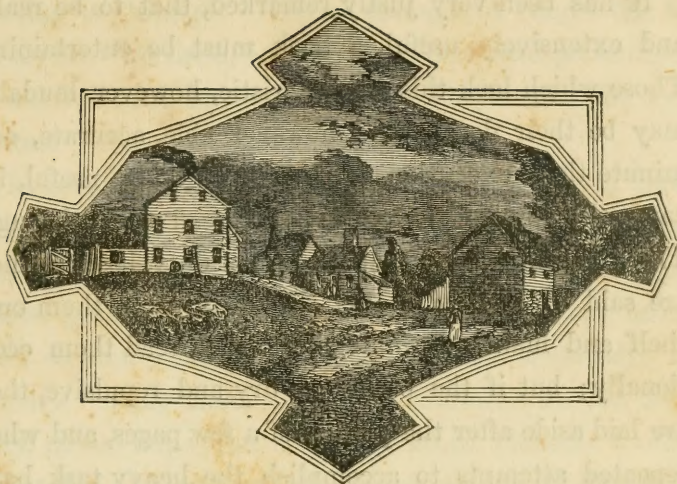


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PREFACE.

THE object of the present work is to present, in a striking point of view, the most remarkable and influential events of modern times. The author has not attempted a regular and continuous history, as that had already been given in the volume of his Pictorial History of the World, devoted to modern history. But he has in this volume brought together a series of narratives, of such a character as he considered likely to interest the reader strongly, and to leave a lasting impression on the memory, at the same time that they exhibit the salient points of history.

It has been very justly remarked, that to be really and extensively useful, a book must be entertaining. Those which lack this characteristic, however laudable may be their design, and however able, accurate, and minute their execution, cannot be generally useful, because the mass of readers will not read them through. They may buy them from a sense of duty, because they are said to be *good books*; they may place them on a shelf and make a resolute attempt to read them occasionally; but if the books are dry and repulsive, they are laid aside after the perusal of a few pages, and when repeated attempts to accomplish the heavy task have failed, the undertaking is given up in despair. The volume is spoken of with great respect, and permitted to enjoy a dignified repose on the upper shelf.

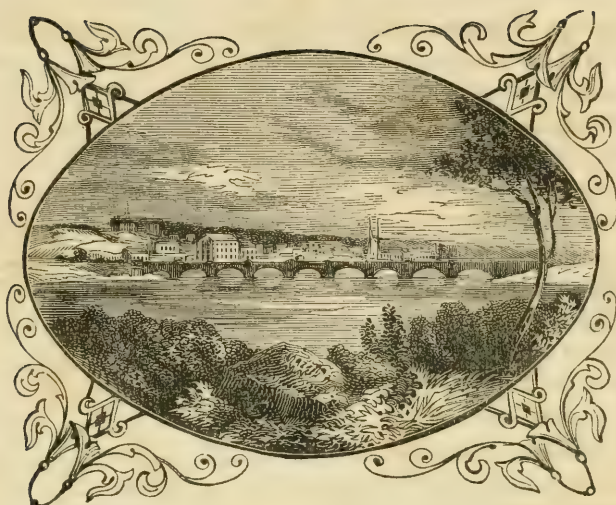
This is a consummation which the author of this work has earnestly endeavoured to avoid. It will be seen, by a glance at the table of contents, that the events selected for narration are important and worthy of notice—interesting in themselves, in the characters they exhibit, and the bearing they have exerted on the destiny of mankind. The authorities cited are reliable; and the authors quoted are among the most eminent classics in history, such as Robertson, Hume, Goldsmith, Macauley, Bonnechose, and others of equal reputation. It is humbly hoped, therefore, that the volume may prove an entertaining one, so that readers who once take it up will require no inducement but its interesting and entertaining character to insure their

reading it through. If read through, it cannot fail to be useful. Its facts, and the great historical personages it exhibits will be remembered. They cannot be forgotten.

In order the better to insure the recollection of incidents and characters presented in this volume, the author has embellished it profusely with engravings. These graphic helps to the memory exert much influence in extending and popularizing the knowledge of history. They make the reader familiar with the subject, at the same time that they afford pleasure to the cultivated eye, and serve to diffuse among all classes of readers a certain degree of knowledge and taste in the fine arts.

The author is sensible to the high degree of indulgence with which his very humble efforts in the cause of national education have been regarded by his countrymen. The publishers' returns of copies sold afford a tolerably satisfactory proof that his works are very widely diffused among the people; and as this has been the case for many years, he has reason to believe that they are also approved. For this he is deeply grateful, and he will always endeavour to evince the sincerity of his gratitude by studiously aiming at real utility in whatever he may offer to the notice of the public.





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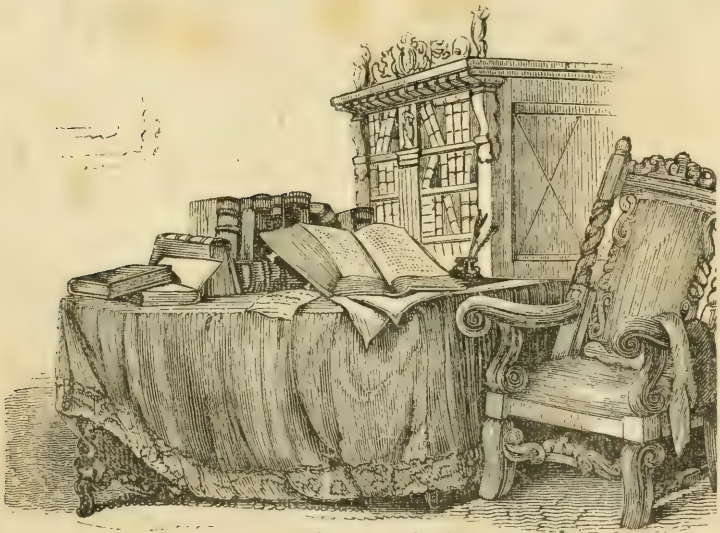
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INTRODUCTION.



MODERN history may be regarded as commencing with the discovery of America, which took place in 1492. The century following (16th century) is one of the most remarkable in the history of the world, both with respect to its extraordinary events and its distinguished men. It witnessed the great reformation in religion; the extended conquests of the Spaniards in America, and of the Portuguese in India; the civil wars of France, the various contests of Charles V. and Francis I.; the successful resistance of the Turkish power, threatening the conquest of the whole west of Europe; the momentous reigns of Henry VIII. and Elizabeth, in England; and the general diffusion of learning and science throughout Europe by means of the recently discovered art of printing.

Nor was this period less remarkable for its great men. Without attempting to enumerate those of inferior rank, its sovereigns alone would serve to characterize the era. "It was the peculiar glory of that period," says Robertson, "to produce the most illustrious monarchs, who have at any one time appeared in Europe. Leo, Charles, Francis, Henry, and Solyman, were each of them possessed of talents which might have rendered any age, wherein they happened to flourish, conspicuous. But such a constellation of great princes shed uncommon lustre on the sixteenth century. In every contest, great power as well as great abilities were set in opposition; the efforts of valour and conduct on one side, counterbalanced by an equal exertion of the same qualities on the other, not only occasioned such a variety of events as renders the history of that period interesting; but served to check the exorbitant progress of any of those princes, and to prevent their attaining such pre-eminence in power as would have been fatal to the liberty and happiness of mankind."

Our notices of the remarkable incidents of modern history will commence with those of the sixteenth century; commencing with the accession of two of its most remarkable sovereigns, Francis I. of France, and Charles of Spain, afterwards elected emperor of Germany with the title of Charles V.





FRANCIS I.



ACCESSION OF FRANCIS I.



LEWIS XII. was succeeded on the throne of France by his son-in-law Francis, count of Angouleme, first prince of the blood, whose military genius, it was foreseen, would soon disturb the peace of Europe. (A. D. 1515.) Young, brave, ambitious, and enterprising, he immediately

turned his eyes towards Italy, as the scene of glory and of conquest. His first object was the recovery of Milan. But before he set out on that expedition, he renewed the treaty which his predecessor had concluded with England; and having nothing to fear from Spain, where Ferdinand was on the verge of the grave, he marched his army towards the Alps, under pretence of defending his kingdom against the incursions of the Swiss. Informed of his hostile intentions, that warlike people had taken up arms, at the instigation of the pope, in order to protect Maximilian Sforza, duke of Milan, whom they had restored to his dominions, and thought themselves bound in honour to support.

These hardy mountaineers took possession of all those passes in the Alps through which they thought the French must enter Italy; and when informed that Francis had made his way into Piedmont by a secret route, they descended undismayed into the plain, and gallantly opposed themselves on foot to the heavy-armed cavalry of France. The two armies met at Marignan, near Milan, (Sept. 13;) where was fought one of the most furious and obstinate battles mentioned in the history of modern times. The action began towards evening: night parted the combatants: but next morning the Swiss renewed the attack with unabated ardour, and it required all the heroic valour of Francis to inspire his troops with courage sufficient to resist the shock. The

Swiss, though broken at last by the cavalry, and galled by the cannon, long kept their ground ; and did not retire till they had lost upwards of twelve thousand of their best troops, about one-half of their whole number. The loss of the French was very considerable ; twenty thousand men fell on both sides ; and the old Marshal Trivulzio, who had been present at eighteen pitched battles, used to declare, that in comparison of the battle of Marignan, every other engagement he had seen was but *the play of children*, but this was *a combat of heroes*.

The surrender of the city of Milan, and the conquest of the whole duchy, were the consequences of this victory. Maximilian Sforza resigned his claim in consideration of a pension ; and Francis, having concluded a treaty with the pope and with the Swiss, returned into France, leaving to Charles, duke of Bourbon, the government of his Italian dominions.

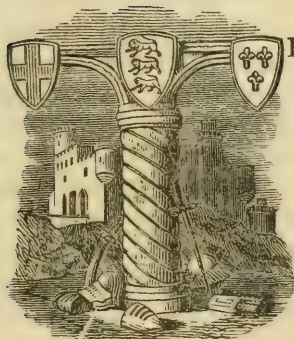
In the mean time, the success and glory of the French monarch began to excite jealousy in the breast of the old Emperor Maximilian : nor was the rapid progress of Francis, though in so distant a country, regarded with indifference even by the king of England. Henry despatched a minister to the court of Vienna, with secret orders to propose certain payments to the emperor : and Maximilian, who was ever ready to embrace any overture to excite fresh troubles, and always necessitous, immediately invaded Italy with a considerable army. But that prince, being repulsed before Milan by the French garrison, and hearing that twelve thousand Swiss were advancing to its relief, retired hastily into Germany ; made peace with France and with Venice, (A. D. 1516,) ceded Verona to that republic for a sum of money, and thus excluded himself, in some measure, from all future access into Italy.





CHARLES V.

ACCESSION OF CHARLES V.



THE next remarkable and influential event of the sixteenth century was the death of Ferdinand the Catholic, (Jan. 23, 1516,) and the succession of his grandson Charles to his extensive dominions; an event which had long been looked for, and from which the most important consequences were expected. Charles, who had hitherto resided in the Low Countries, which he inherited as heir of the house of Burgundy, was now near the full age of sixteen, and possessed a recollection and sedateness much above his years; but his genius had yet given no indications of that superiority which its maturer state displayed. That capacious and decisive judgment, which afterwards directed so ably the affairs of a vast empire, was left to be discovered by those great events to which it gave birth,

and those occasions which made it necessary. At present there was little call for it.

Cardinal Ximenes, archbishop of Toledo, a person of equal virtue and sagacity, had prudently been appointed, by the will of Ferdinand, sole regent of Castile, till the arrival of his grandson. This man, whose character is no less singular than illustrious; who united the abilities of a great statesman with the abject devotion of a superstitious monk; and the magnificence of a prime minister with the austerity of a mendicant; maintained order and tranquillity in Spain, notwithstanding the discontents of a turbulent and high-spirited nobility. When they disputed his right to the regency, he coolly showed them the testament of Ferdinand, and the ratification of that deed by Charles; but these not satisfying them, and arguments proving ineffectual, he led them insensibly towards a balcony, whence they had a view of a large body of troops under arms, and a formidable train of artillery. "Behold," said the cardinal, raising his voice, and extending his arm, "the powers which I have received from his Catholic majesty: by these I govern Castile! and will govern it, till the king, your master and mine, shall come to take possession of his kingdom." (A. D. 1517.) A declaration so bold and determined silenced all opposition, and Ximenes maintained his authority till the arrival of Charles.

The fate of this minister merits attention, though not immediately connected with the line of general history. The young king was received with universal acclamations of joy; but Ximenes found little cause to rejoice. He was seized with a violent disorder, supposed to be the effect of poison; and when he recovered, Charles, prejudiced against him by the Spanish grandees and his Flemish courtiers, slighted his advice, and allowed him every day to sink into neglect. The cardinal did not bear this treatment with his usual firmness of spirit. He expected a more grateful return from a prince, to whom he delivered a kingdom far more flourishing than it had been in any former age, and authority more extensive and better established than the most illustrious of his ancestors had ever possessed. Conscious of his own integrity and merit, he could not therefore refrain from giving vent, at times, to indignation and complaint. He lamented the fate of his country, and foretold the calamities to which it would be exposed from the insolence, the rapacious-

ness, and the ignorance of strangers. These feelings agitated the soul of Ximenes, when he received a letter from the king, genteelly dismissing him from his counsels, under pretence of easing his age of that burden, which he had so long and so ably sustained. This letter proved fatal to the minister. His haughty mind could not endure disgrace, nor his generous heart the stings of ingratitude: he expired a few hours after reading it.



CARDINAL XIMENES.



REFORMERS PREACHING.

COMMENCEMENT OF THE REFORMATION.



WHILE Charles was taking possession of the throne of Spain, in consequence of the death of one grandfather, another was endeavouring to obtain for him the imperial crown. With this view Maximilian assembled a diet at Augsburg, (A. D. 1518,) where he strove to gain the favour of the electors by many acts of beneficence, in order to engage them to choose that young prince as his successor. But Maximilian himself having never been crowned by the pope, a ceremony deemed essential in that age, as well as the preceding, he was considered only as king of the Romans, or emperor *elect*; and no example occurring in history of any person being chosen successor to a king of the Romans, the Germans, ever tenacious of their forms, obstinately refused to confer upon Charles a dignity for which their constitution knew no name.

But the diet of Augsburg had other business. Thither was summoned Martin Luther, for “propagating new and dangerous

opinions." These opinions were no other than the first principles of the Reformation, which soon diffused themselves through Germany, which were afterwards embraced by so many nations, and which separated one-half of Europe from the Romish church.

After that enormous privilege which the Roman pontiffs assumed of disposing of crowns, and of releasing nations from their oath of allegiance, the most pernicious to society was that of absolving individuals from the ties of moral duty. This dangerous power, or one equivalent to it, the pope claimed as the successor of St. Peter, and the keeper of the spiritual treasury of the church, supposed to contain the superabounding good works of the saints, together with the infinite merits of Jesus Christ. Out of this inexhaustible storehouse of superabundant merit, his holiness might retail, at pleasure, particular portions to those who were deficient. He assumed, in short, and directly exercised the right of pardoning sins; which was, in other words, granting a permission to commit them; for if it is known, as had long been the case in the Romish church, at what price the punishment of any crime may be bought off, the encouragement to vice is the same as if a dispensation had been granted beforehand. And even that was frequently indulged.

The influence of such indulgences upon morals may easily be imagined; especially in ages when superstition had silenced the voice of conscience, and reason was bewildered in Gothic darkness; when the church had everywhere provided sanctuaries, which not only screened from the arm of the civil magistrate persons guilty of the greatest enormities, but often enabled them to live in affluence.

The abuse of the sale of indulgences in Germany, where they were publicly retailed in alehouses, and where the produce of particular districts was farmed out, in the manner of a toll or custom, awakened the indignation of Martin Luther, an Augustine friar, and professor of theology in the university of Wittemberg. Luther was also incensed, it is said, that the privilege of vending this spiritual merchandise had been taken from his order, and given to the Dominicans. But be that as it may, he wrote and he preached against indulgences. His writings were read with avidity, and his discourses were listened to with admiration. He appealed to reason and Scripture for the truth of his arguments, not to the decisions of councils or of popes. A corner

of the veil was now happily lifted. The people, ever fond of judging for themselves, (and in matters which concern themselves only they have an undoubted right,) flattered by this appeal, began to call in question that authority which they had formerly revered, which they had blindly adored; and Luther, emboldened by success, extended his views, and ventured to declaim against other abuses. From abuses he proceeded to usurpations; from usurpations to errors; and from one error to another, till the whole fabric of the Romish church began to totter.

Leo, in the mean time, alarmed at the progress of this daring innovator, had summoned him to answer for his doctrines at Rome. But that citation was remitted at the intercession of Frederick, surnamed the Wise, elector of Saxony, who had hitherto protected Luther; and his cause was ordered to be tried in Germany, by Cardinal Cajetan, a Dominican, eminent for scholastic learning, and the pope's legate at the imperial court. For this end, among others, Cajetan attended the diet at Augsburg; and thither Luther repaired without hesitation, after having obtained the emperor's safe-conduct, though he had good reason to decline a judge chosen from among his avowed adversaries. The cardinal received him with decent respect, and endeavoured at first to gain him by gentle treatment; but finding him firm in his principles, and thinking it beneath the dignity of his station to enter into any formal dispute, he required him, by virtue of the apostolic powers with which he was vested, to retract his errors, (without showing that they were such,) and to abstain, for the future, from the publication of new and dangerous opinions. Luther, who had flattered himself with a hearing, and hoped to distinguish himself in a dispute with a prelate of such eminent abilities, was much mortified at this arbitrary mode of proceeding. His native intrepidity of mind, however, did not forsake him: he boldly replied, that he could not, with a safe conscience, renounce opinions which he believed to be true; but offered to submit the whole controversy to the judgment of the learned, naming certain universities. This offer was rejected by Cajetan, who still insisted on a simple recantation; and Luther, by the advice of his friends, after appealing to a general council, secretly withdrew from Augsburg, and returned to his own country.



WAR SHIP OF THE SIXTEENTH CENTURY.

DISCOVERIES OF THE PORTUGUESE IN AFRICA.



THE navigation of Europe, at the beginning of the fifteenth century, though much improved since the age of Charlemagne, was chiefly confined to the Mediterranean and Baltic seas, and was still little more than what is now called *coasting*. Flanders was the great theatre of commerce. Thither, the Italian states conveyed from the ports of Egypt the precious commodities of

the East; and thither the Hanseatic merchants carried from the shores of the Baltic the naval stores and other rude merchandise of the North. To this common mart, all European nations resorted. Here they sold or exchanged the produce of their several countries, and supplied themselves with what they wanted, without dreaming of new ports, or suspecting that the system of commerce could be altered. Dantzic, Lisbon, and

Alexandria, continued to mark the limits of practical navigation ; when the enlightened and enterprising genius of Don Henry of Portugal extended the views of the mariner, and emboldened him to pilot the Atlantic, or Great Western Ocean. But before we speak of that prince, and the discoveries which he accomplished, we must say a few words of his country, hitherto considered only as an appendage of Spain.

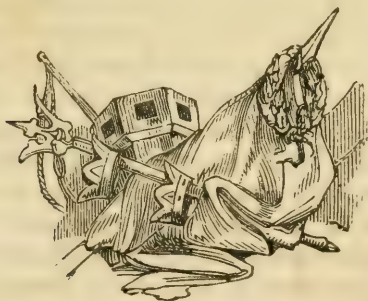
Portugal, which forms the western coast of the southern peninsula of Europe, had no existence as a separate state till towards the close of the eleventh century. About that time Alphonso VI., king of Castile and Leon, having conquered from the Moors the northern provinces of the present kingdom of Portugal, bestowed them, together with his natural daughter, upon Henry of Burgundy, a noble volunteer, who had assisted him in his wars. Henry took only the title of count ; but his son Alphonso, having recovered other provinces from the Moors, assumed the regal dignity in 1139. The kings of Portugal, like those of Spain, long spent their force in combating the Moors, and had no connection with the rest of Europe. The succession continued uninterrupted in the line of Burgundy, till the death of Ferdinand in 1383 ; when John of Castile, who had married the infanta of Portugal, claimed the crown, as the king had left no male issue. (A. D. 1385.) But the states of Portugal, after an interregnum of eighteen months, gave it to John, natural brother of their deceased sovereign, and at that time regent of the kingdom.

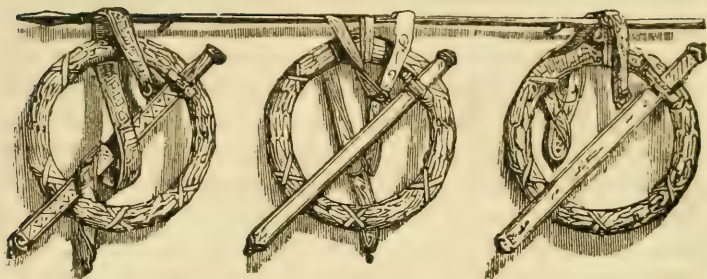
This John, surnamed the Bastard, no less politic than enterprising, proved worthy of his new dignity. He was the first European prince who formed a respectable navy ; which he employed, with equal success, in annoying his enemies and in protecting his subjects. He took Ceuta from the Moors, (A. D. 1414,) and overawed the states of Barbary during his whole reign. He had several sons, who all signalized themselves by their valour and abilities ; but more especially the third, Don Henry, whose bold and enlightened genius, assisted by the reports of travellers, led him to project discoveries in the Western Ocean.

This amiable prince, who joined the virtues of a hero and a patriot to the knowledge of a philosopher, turned to use that astronomy which the Arabs had preserved. He had a considera-

ble share in the invention of the astrolabe, and first perceived the advantage that might be drawn from the direction of the magnetic needle to the north; which, though already known in Europe, had not hitherto been employed with any success in navigation. He established an observatory at Sagres, near Cape St. Vincent, where many persons were instructed in astronomy and the art of sailing. The pilots formed under his eye not only doubled Cape Non, long supposed an insurmountable barrier, but advanced as far as Cape Bajadore, and in their return discovered the island of Madeira, (A. D. 1420.) Other pilots, yet more bold, were sent out. They doubled Cape Bajadore, Cape Blanco, Cape Verd, and at last Cape Sierra Leona, within eight degrees of the line, before the death of Don Henry, (A. D. 1463.) In the course of these voyages, the Azores and Cape de Verd islands had been discovered, and the vine and the sugar-cane introduced into the island of Madeira, and there cultivated with success.

Under the reign of John II., a prince of the most profound sagacity and most extensive views, who first made Lisbon a free port, the Portuguese prosecuted their discoveries with equal ardour and success. The river Zara, on the other side of the line, conducted them to the kingdom of Congo, in the interior part of Africa, where they made easy conquests, and established an advantageous commerce, (A. D. 1484.) Captain Diaz passed the extreme point of Africa, to which he gave the name of the *Stormy Cape*, (A. D. 1486;) but the king, who saw more fully the importance of that discovery, styled it the *Cape of Good Hope*.





VOYAGE OF VASCO DE GAMA.

MANUEL I. pursued the great projects of his predecessors. (A. D. 1497.) He sent out a fleet of four ships, under the command of Vasco de Gama, a noble Portuguese, in order to complete the passage to India by sea. This admiral possessed all the knowledge and talents necessary for such an expedition. (A. D. 1498.) After being assailed by tempests, encircling the eastern coast of Africa, and ranging through unknown seas, he happily arrived at the city of Calicut, on the coast of Malabar, or the higher part of the western side of the great peninsula of India.

Calicut was at that time the emporium of Indostan. Thither the Arabs resorted for all the rich products and precious manufactures of the East. These they carried in ships to the ports of the Red Sea, and sold to the Italian merchants from Alexandria. This information Gama received at Melinda, on the coast of Zanguebar, the most eastern part of Africa, where he had touched, and engaged a pilot who conducted him into the harbour of Calicut, when the trade was at its height. Here he fortunately met with a native of Barbary, named Monzaida, who understood the Portuguese language, and whose admiration of that people overbalanced the prejudices of religion and country. This admiration determined Monzaida to do every thing in his power to serve strangers, who unbosomed themselves



VASCO DE GAMA.

to him without reserve. He procured Gama an audience of the Samorin or emperor, who received him very favourably; and a treaty of commerce was set on foot in the name of the king of Portugal. But this negotiation, when almost completed, was broken off by the insinuations of the Arabs. Jealous of their lucrative trade, they represented so strongly the danger of such an alliance, and the ambition of the Portuguese, that Samorin took the ungenerous resolution of putting to death those bold navigators, whom he had lately treated with kindness, and whose friendship he seemed to desire.

Informed of his danger by the faithful Monzaida, Gama sent his brother on board the fleet. "Should you hear," said he, "of my death or imprisonment, I prohibit you, as your commander, either to attempt to release me or to avenge my fate. Set sail immediately and inform the king of the success of our voyage. I am happy in having performed his orders, and discovered a passage to India for Portugal."

Fortunately, however, matters were not pushed to that extremity. Gama lived to carry to Portugal the news of his own success. The Samorin permitted him to join his fleet, and he departed soon after for Europe.

No language can express the joy of the Portuguese on the return of Gama to Lisbon, (A. D. 1499.) They saw themselves, by one daring enterprise, in possession of the richest commerce in the world; and no less superstitious than avaricious, they flattered themselves with the project of extending their religion along with their dominion.





LANDING OF CABRAL IN BRAZIL.

VOYAGE OF CABRAL.



THE pope farther encouraged the Portuguese. Glad of an occasion of asserting his universal sovereignty, he granted to them all the countries which they had discovered, or should discover, in the East, on condition that they should there plant the Catholic faith. The whole nation was seized with the enthusiasm of conversion and of conquest. They presented themselves in crowds to man the new fleet destined for India, (A. D. 1500:) and thirteen ships sailed, as soon as the season would permit, from the Tagus to Calicut, under the

command of Alvarez de Cabral.

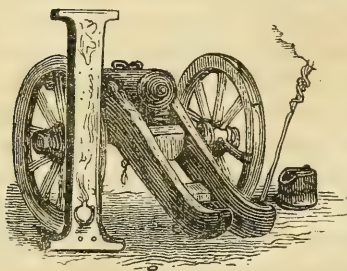
This admiral, in his passage keeping out to sea, in order to avoid the calms on the coast of Africa, and the storms which had been met with in doubling the Cape of Good Hope, discovered the rich country now called Brazil, to which he gave the name of the *Land of the Holy Cross*. He took possession

of it in the name of the king his master, and proceeded on his voyage. When he arrived at the coast of Malabar, the Samorin made him an offer of friendship, and invited him to Calicut, where he had an audience of that Indian prince, and was permitted to open a magazine of commerce. But this good understanding was of short duration. The Arabs again found means to poison the mind of the Samorin: the admiral did not behave with the greatest discretion: mutual jealousies took place, mutual fears, and mutual injuries. At last the inhabitants of Calicut rose, murdered fifty Portuguese, and burnt their magazine. This act of hostility did not escape unpunished. Cabral, in revenge of such a breach of faith and such undermining perfidy, destroyed all the Arabian vessels in the port, beat down great part of the city, and left it in flames.

After this second rupture with the Samorin, the measures of the Portuguese in India were totally changed. The peaceful system of Gama was laid aside: the maxims of mutual advantage gave place to those of violence, of force, and of fear; and commerce was established by the sword. Cabral, on leaving Calicut, entered into a negotiation with the kings of Cochin, Cananor, Onor, Culan, and other Indian princes, who were tributaries of the Samorin, and desirous of independency. (A. D. 1501.) This love of freedom procured the Portuguese the sovereignty of Malabar and the trade of India. Cabral promised those deluded princes support, and carried their ambassadors to the court of Lisbon, where such political steps were taken as rendered success infallible. A force was sent out sufficient to combat the Samorin. (A. D. 1502.) But no prince could obtain the protection of Portugal without first acknowledging himself its vassal, permitting a fortress to be erected in his capital, and selling his commodities to his subjects at their own price. No strange merchant might load a cargo, till the Portuguese were served: nor any mariner ravage those seas, but with their passports. They were the terror and admiration of the East, the wonder and envy of the West. All European merchants soon resorted to Lisbon for Indian commodities; because they could there purchase them much cheaper than at Venice, or any other mart to which they were brought by the way of Egypt. (A. D. 1508.) And happily for Portugal, the Venetians were then sinking under the pressure of the league of Cambray.



ASTONISHING CONQUESTS OF ALBUQUERQUE IN INDIA.



N order to secure and render perpetual the commercial advantages of the Portuguese, the chief command in India was given to Alphonso Albuquerque, a man of singular sagacity and penetration, and equally distinguished by his military and political talents.

Albuquerque was no sooner invested with the government, than he began to form the most extensive projects; many of which he executed, and with a facility that is altogether incredible. The Arabs settled in India, and their associates, he had long been sensible, were the only power in the East that the Portuguese had to fear. These traders had secretly entered into a league with the Samorin, the Sultan of Egypt, and the Venetians, who were gainers by their commerce, and whose interest it was to destroy the trade of Portugal. The furnishers of the caravans and navigators of the Red Sea were the natural enemies



ALBUQUERQUE.

of the circumnavigators of the Cape. Albuquerque saw it early, while a private commander. He had therefore done every thing in his power to ruin their settlements on the coast of Arabia, and their united naval force had received a signal overthrow in the Indian Ocean. He now extended his views: he projected nothing less than the conquest of Ormus in the Persian Gulf, and of Aden at the mouth of the Red Sea; where Portuguese squadrons, stationed, might command the trade of Persia and of Egypt.

The immediate execution of these projects would at once have proved fatal to the commerce of the Arabs and their allies; but Albuquerque, upon mature deliberation, perceived the necessity of establishing the Portuguese more fully on the coast of Malabar before he divided his forces. (A. D. 1509.) He accordingly burnt Calicut, which had long been a thorn in the side of his countrymen; and observing that the Portuguese had yet no good port in a wholesome air, where they might refit their ships and recruit their seamen, after the fatigues of the European voyage, he resolved to procure one. He found that Lisbon had need of Goa.

Goa, which rises to view in the form of an amphitheatre, is situated toward the middle of the coast of Malabar, in an island detached from the continent by two branches of a river, that throws itself into the sea at some distance from the city, after having formed beneath its walls one of the finest harbours in the world. It properly belonged to the king of Decan; but a Moor, named Idalcan, to whom the government of it had been intrusted, had rendered himself its sovereign. While this usurper was occupied on the continent, Albuquerque appeared before the city and carried it by assault, (A. D. 1510.) It was afterwards recovered, but soon retaken: and Goa became the capital of the Portuguese empire in India.

Albuquerque, whose ambition was boundless, attempted next to establish the Portuguese on the coast of Coromandel, (A. D. 1511.) With this view he made an attack upon Malacca, situated near the straits of Singapore, one of the richest cities in India, and the best adapted for commerce. It was the centre of the trade between Japan, China, the Spice Islands, and the other Indian ports. When Albuquerque appeared before Malacca, he found it in a posture of defence: and a new obstacle

conspired to retard his progress. His friend Araujo was there a prisoner, and threatened with death the moment the city should be besieged. Deliberating how to act, while the sentiments of friendship and ambition, perhaps of duty, struggled in his breast, he received the following billet from Araujo: "Think only of the glory and advantage of Portugal: if I cannot be an instrument of your victory, let me not retard it." The place was carried by storm after an obstinate defence and several changes of fortune. The Portuguese found in it an immense booty, both in treasure and precious commodities. Albuquerque, whose heart was superior to the charms of gold, erected a citadel to secure his conquest, and returned to Goa.

The friendship of the Portuguese was now courted by the samorin, Idalcan, and all the most formidable Indian princes, who offered to permit fortresses to be built and factories to be established in any part of their dominions. Albuquerque did not fail to profit by these offers; and judging that the season was now arrived for giving the final blow to the Arabian commerce in the East, he embarked in his original projects, the conquests of Aden and Ormus.

In his attempt upon Aden, which was then the key of Egypt, Albuquerque miscarried: but he committed so many ravages on the coasts of the Red Sea, and in the straits of Babelmandel, as entirely ruined the commerce of the Arabs and Egyptians. (A. D. 1513.) He was more successful in his expedition against Ormus, at that time the most opulent and splendid city in the East. It appears to have been nothing inferior to what we are told of ancient Tyre, either in wealth or in splendour, in industry or in pleasure: and, like Tyre, it was seated in a barren isle. Like Tyre, it seemed only to have been disjoined from the land that it might become queen of the sea. It was one of the greatest marts in the universe. But its voluptuous inhabitants were little able to withstand the impetuous and hardy valour of the Portuguese. (A. D. 1515.) Albuquerque soon made himself master of the place, and had the honour of there receiving an embassy from the king of Persia.

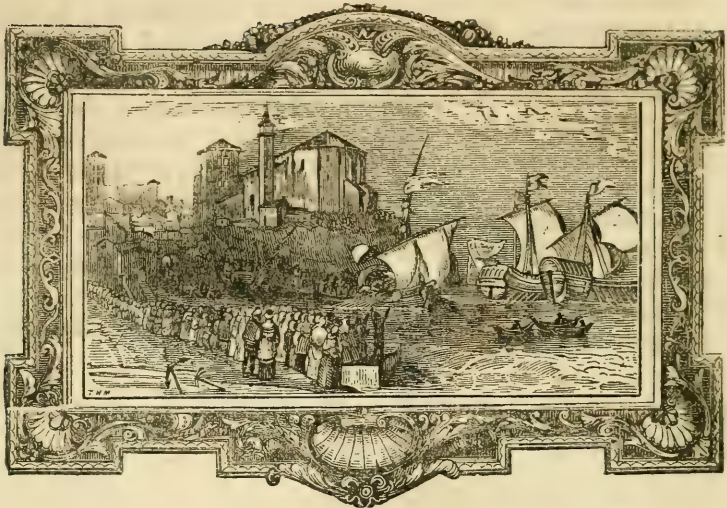
The reduction of Ormus, which was the latest enterprise of this truly great man, together with the possession of Goa and Malacca, gave perfect security to the Portuguese commerce in India. His successors afterwards extended it into China and



ALBUQUERQUE RAVAGING THE COAST OF THE RED SEA.

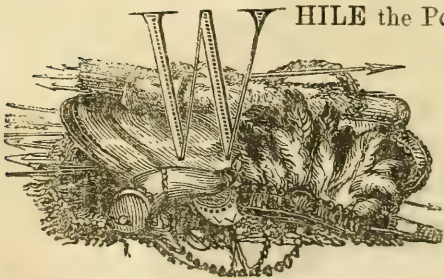
Japan; but it was never more respectable than under Albuquerque. Yet this founder of his country's greatness died in disgrace, and of a broken heart, if ever any man may be said to have done so. That dauntless spirit which had encountered so many enemies, and surmounted so many dangers, could not support the frown of his prince. Emanuel, become jealous of his glory, had listened to the insinuations of his enemies; had appointed another governor in his stead, and promoted those whom he sent home as criminals. When Albuquerque received this intelligence, he sighed and said, "Can these things be so? —I incurred the hatred of men by my love for the king, and am disgraced by him through his prepossession for other men. To the grave, unhappy old man! to the grave!—thy actions will speak for themselves and for thee."





THE SAILING OF COLUMBUS.

DISCOVERY OF AMERICA.



WHILE the Portuguese were employed in making acquisitions in the East, and appropriating to themselves the most lucrative commerce in the known world, the Spaniards had discovered a new continent toward the West. They had called into existence, as it were, another world; had opened new sources of trade, expanded new theatres of dominion, and displayed new scenes of ambition, of avarice, and of blood.

Christopher Columbus, a Genoese navigator, who resided at Lisbon, and who had devoted himself to the study of astronomy, first conceived the idea of this new continent. Perfectly acquainted with the figure of the earth, the notion of the anti-

podes, considered by reason as a chimera, and by religion as impiety, appeared to him an incontestable fact. But if Columbus had not added the stout heart of a hero to the enlightened mind and persevering spirit of a philosopher, the world might still have been ignorant of his discoveries. The Genoese, his countrymen, whom he proposed to put in possession of another hemisphere, treated him as a visionary. He also unfolded his project, the grandest that human genius ever formed, in 1484, to the court of Portugal without success. He next laid it before the court of Spain; where he long suffered all that supercilious neglect which unsupported merit so often meets with from men in office, who are too apt to despise what they do not understand.

Ferdinand and Isabella were then engaged in the conquest of Granada. The Spanish treasury was exhausted. But no sooner were the Moors subdued, than the ambitious mind of Isabella seemed to sympathize with the bold spirit of Columbus. She offered to pledge her jewels, in order to furnish him with a fleet. Three small vessels were fitted out by other means; and Columbus set sail from the port of Palos, in Andalusia, on the third of August, in the year 1492, in quest of a Western continent, with the title of Admiral and Viceroy of the Isles and Lands which he should discover.

Transcendent genius and superlative courage experience almost equal difficulty in carrying their designs into execution, when they depend on the assistance of others. Columbus possessed both, he exerted both; and the concurrence of other heads and other hearts were necessary to give success to either: he had indolence and cowardice to encounter, as well as ignorance and prejudice. He had formerly been ridiculed as a visionary, he was now pitied as a desperado. The Portuguese navigators, in accomplishing their first discoveries, had always some reference to the coast: cape had pointed them to cape; but Columbus, with no landmark but the heavens, nor any guide but the compass, boldly launched into the ocean, without knowing what shore should receive him, or where he could find rest for the sole of his foot. His crew murmured, they mutinied; they proposed to commit him to those waves with which he so wantonly sported, and return to Spain.

This was a severe trial to the courage of Columbus, and Columbus only, perhaps, could have supported it. The enthusiasm

of genius added strength to his natural fortitude. Cool and unconcerned himself about every thing but his great object, he had recourse to the softest language. He encouraged his men by fair promises, he deceived his officers by false reckonings. But all these expedients proved at last ineffectual: he demanded three days' indulgence; at the end of which, if he did not discover land, he promised to abandon his project. His request was granted; and on the morning of the second day, being the 12th of October, to his inexpressible joy, he got sight of one of the Bahama islands, to which he gave the name of San Salvador. He took possession of it in the name of their Catholic majesties, and proceeded on his course.



THE LANDING OF COLUMBUS.

After leaving San Salvador, now better known by the name of Guanahani, given to it by the natives, Columbus fell in with several other small islands; to one of which he gave the name of Isabella, in honour of his patroness, and to another that of Ferdinand, in compliment to the Catholic king. These he

rightly judged to belong to that Western continent which he sought, and which he conjectured must reach to the Portuguese settlements in India: hence the name of *West Indies*. At length he arrived at the island of Cuba, where he entered into some correspondence with the natives, and particularly with the women, from whom he learned that the gold ornaments which they wore came from Bohio, a large island to the south-east. Thither Columbus steered: what heart does not pant after gold! He soon reached Bohio, or Hayti, as it was called by the natives, to which he gave the name of Espagnola, altered by us into Hispaniola. Here Columbus built a fort, and planted a little colony; after which, having taken a general survey of the island, and settled a friendly intercourse with the natives, he set out on his return to Spain, carrying along with him a sufficient quantity of gold to evince the importance of his discoveries, and some of those new people, to complete the astonishment of Europe.

The natives of Hispaniola, and indeed of all the islands which Columbus had visited, were an easy, indolent, harmless race. They were of a copper colour. The men and the girls went entirely naked; the women had a mat of cotton wrapt about their loins. They had no hair on any part of the body but the head; a distinction which also is common to the natives of the American continent. They considered the Spaniards as divinities, and the discharge of the artillery as their thunder: they fell on their faces at the sound.

Columbus again entered the port of Palos on the 15th of March, 1493, after a voyage of seven months and eleven days, and was received with universal acclamations of joy. Those who had ridiculed his project were the readiest to pay court to him. He was ordered into the presence of Ferdinand and Isabella, and desired to sit covered like a grandee of Spain. Royal favour beamed upon him with unremitting brightness, and the church loaded him with its benedictions. Superstition lent its sanction to those discoveries which had been made in its defiance. Pope Alexander VI. issued a bull, granting to the sovereigns of Spain all the countries which they had discovered, or should discover, a hundred leagues to the westward of the Azores. A fleet of seventeen sail was fitted out in a few months; and Columbus, vested with yet more extensive powers, and furnished

with every thing necessary for discovery, for colonization, or for conquest, again committed himself to the waves in quest of a Western Continent.

Great things were expected from this second voyage; and many new islands were discovered; yet it ended in general disappointment, misfortune, and disgust. When Columbus arrived at Hispaniola, with a multitude of missionaries, soldiers, and settlers, he found the fortress utterly ruined and the garrison all massacred. They had drawn upon themselves this untimely fate by their arrogance, licentiousness, and tyranny. These particulars he learned from the natives, accompanied with such marking circumstances as left him no room to disbelieve them. He therefore entered once more into friendly correspondence with those artless people, established a new colony, and built the town of Isabella; afterwards abandoned for that of St. Domingo, which became the capital of the island. His next care was to discover the mines; near which he erected forts and left garrisons to protect the labourers. But neither the wisdom nor humanity of this great man was sufficient to preserve order among his followers, or to teach them fellow-feeling. They roused anew, by their barbarities, the gentle spirit of the natives; they quarrelled among themselves, they rose against their commander. Mortified by so many untoward circumstances, Columbus committed the government of the island to his brother Bartholomew, and returned to Spain in 1496, with some samples of gold dust and gold ore, pearls and other precious products, after having a second time attempted in vain to discover a Western Continent.

Bartholomew Columbus suffered many hardships, and was on the point of sinking under the mutineers, before he received any assistance from the court of Spain; and although the great Christopher was able to clear himself of all the aspersions of his enemies, some years elapsed before he could obtain a third appointment for the prosecution of his favourite project. At last a small fleet was granted to him, and he discovered the continent of America, near the mouth of the river Orinoco, on the first day of August, in the year 1498. He carried off six of the natives, and returned to Hispaniola, convinced that he had now reached the great object of his ambition.

But while Columbus was employed in reducing to obedience



VESPUCIUS.

the mutineers in that island, another navigator unjustly took from him the honour of the discovery of the western continent. The merchants of Seville having obtained permission to attempt discoveries, as private adventurers, sent out four ships in 1499, under the command of Alonzo de Ojeda, who had accompanied Columbus in his second voyage, assisted by Americus Vespucius, a Florentine gentleman, deeply skilled in the science of navigation. This fleet touched on that part of the western continent already discovered by Columbus, whose tract Ojeda followed; and Americus, who was a man of much address, as well as possessed of considerable literary talents, by publishing the first voyages on the subject, and other artful means, gave his name to the New World, in prejudice to the illustrious Genoese. Mankind are now become sensible of the imposture, but time has sanctified the error; and the great western continent, or fourth division of the globe, so long unknown to the inhabitants of Europe, Asia, and Africa, still continues to be distinguished by the name of AMERICA.

This, however, was but a small misfortune in comparison of what Columbus was doomed to suffer. His enemies having prevailed at the court of Madrid, a new governor was sent out to Hispaniola. The great discoverer and his brother were loaded with irons, and sent home in that condition, in different ships. Touched with sentiments of veneration and pity, Vallejo, cap-



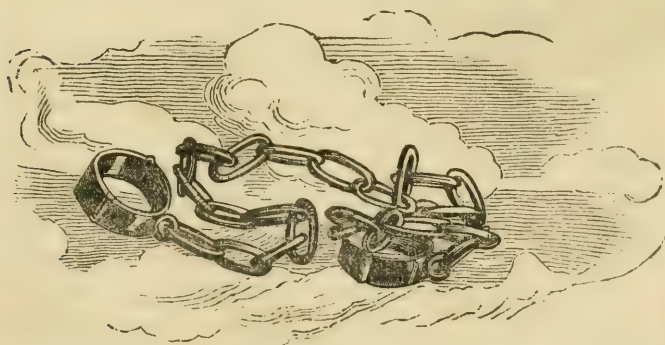
COLUMBUS IN CHAINS.

tain of the vessel on board of which the admiral was confined, approached his prisoner with profound respect, as soon as he was clear of the island, and offered to strike off the fetters with which he was unjustly bound. "No, Vallejo!" replied Columbus, with a generous indignation, "I wear these fetters in consequence of an order from my sovereigns. They shall find me as obedient to this as to all their other injunctions. By their command I have been confined, and their command alone shall set me at liberty."

The Spanish ministry were ashamed of the severity of their creature, Bovadilla: Columbus was set at liberty on his arrival, and a fourth command granted to him in 1502, for the prosecution of farther discoveries. But this expedition did not prove more fortunate than the former; for although Columbus touched at several parts of the American continent, where he exchanged trinkets for gold and pearls, to a considerable amount, he failed in an attempt to establish a colony on the river Yebra or Belem, in the province of Veragua, and lost every thing in his course home. He was shipwrecked on the island of Jamaica: his followers mutinied; and after being alternately in danger of perish-

ing by hunger, or by violence, he arrived in Spain, in 1505, to experience a more severe fate than either. Queen Isabella was dead at his return. With her, all his hopes of future favour perished. The court received him coldly. His services were too great for humility; his proud heart disdained to sue, and his aspiring spirit could not submit to neglect. He retired to Valladolid, where he was suffered to fall a martyr to the ingratitude of that monarch, to whom he had given the West Indies, and for whom he had opened a passage into a richer and more extensive empire than was ever subdued by the Roman arms. He died with firmness and composure, on the 20th of May, 1506, in the fifty-ninth year of his age.

There is something in true genius which seems to be essentially connected with humanity. Don Henry, Gama, and Columbus, prosecuted their discoveries upon the most liberal principles, those of mutual advantage: they sought to benefit, not to destroy their species. After the death of Columbus, the maxims of Spain, like those of Portugal, became altogether bloody. Religion, avarice, and violence, walked hand in hand. The cross was held up as an object of worship, to those who had never heard of the name of Jesus; and millions were deliberately butchered, for not embracing tenets which they could not understand, not delivering treasures which they did not possess, or not suffering oppressions which man was never born to bear, and which his nature cannot sustain.





LANDING OF CORTEZ IN MEXICO.

CONQUEST OF MEXICO.



THE leader who pursued the career of arms in Spanish America, with least violence to humanity, and most advantage to his country, was Fernando Cortez, the conqueror of Mexico. Before the discovery of that rich and powerful empire, the Spanish colonies of Hispaniola, Cuba, Jamaica, and Porto Rico, were in a flourishing condition: frequent expeditions had been made to the continent, the settlements established in Castello del Oro and the Isthmus of Darien. At last a descent was made in the Gulf of Mexico, and information received of the opulence and grandeur of the Emperor Montezuma and his capital. (A. D. 1518.) Velasquez, governor of Cuba, to whom this intelligence was communicated, immediately resolved upon the conquest of Mexico, and committed to Cortez, an officer hitherto more distinguished by his merit than his rank, the execution of the enterprise: and that gallant soldier accomplished, what appears



MONTEZUMA.

too bold even for fiction, the overthrow of an empire that could send millions into the field, with so small a force as five hundred men.

A success so unexampled, in an unknown country, must have been accompanied with many favourable circumstances, independent of the ability of the general, the courage of the troops, and even the superiority of weapons. Some of these we know. When Cortez landed with his little army on the coast of Mexico, (A. D. 1519,) he met with a Spanish captive, who understood the dialect of the country, and whose ransom he obtained. He also formed an intimacy with a fair American named Marina, who soon learned the Castilian language, and became both his mistress and his counsellor.

To these fortunate occurrences may be added, the arrival of the ambassadors of Montezuma, who endeavoured, by presents, to engage the invaders to re-embark. The delay which this negotiation produced was of infinite service to Cortez. An army, instead of an embassy, on his first landing, might have ruined him. He replied, by his female interpreter, who best understood the Mexican tongue, that he was only an ambassador himself, and, as such, could not depart without an audience of the emperor. This answer put the ambassadors of Montezuma to a stand. They reported it to the emperor. He was alarmed

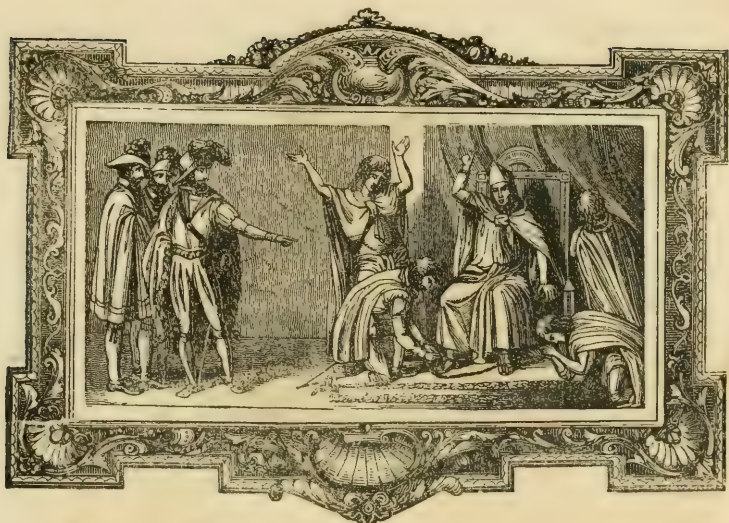
at the request. They redoubled their presents: they employed persuasions, but to no purpose. Cortez was inflexible. At last they had recourse to threats, according to their instructions, and talked loudly of the forces and treasures of their country. "These," said Cortez, turning to his companions, "these are what we seek; great perils and great riches." Stronger motives could not have been offered to needy adventurers, burning with the spirit of chivalry and the lust of plunder. Their leader saw conquest in their looks; and having now received the necessary information, and prepared himself against all hazards, he boldly marched toward the seat of empire.

The Spanish general, however, though so little diffident of his own strength, prudently negotiated with such princes and states as he found to be enemies of the Mexicans. Among these the most powerful was the republic of Tlascala. Cortez proposed an alliance to the senate. It divided upon the subject: but at last came to a resolution, not only to deny assistance to the Spaniards, but to oppose them. This resolution had almost proved fatal to Cortez and his enterprise. The Tlascalans were a brave people, and brought a formidable army into the field; but by the help of fire-arms, artillery, and cavalry, to those republicans above all things tremendous, the Spaniards, after repeated struggles, were enabled to humble them. They saw their mistake; entered into a treaty with Cortez, and were highly serviceable in his future operations.

The invaders now advanced without interruption to the gates of Mexico. Montezuma was all irresolution and terror. That mighty emperor, whose treasures were immense, and whose sway was absolute; who was lord over thirty princes, each of whom could bring a numerous army into the field, was so intimidated by the defeat of the Tlascalans, that he wanted resolution to strike a blow in defence of his dignity. The haughty potentate who had ordered Cortez to depart his coasts, introduced him into his capital. Instead of making use of force, he had recourse to perfidy. While he professed friendship to the Spanish general, he sent an army to attack the Spanish colony, newly settled at Vera Cruz, and yet in a feeble condition. Cortez received intelligence of this breach of faith, and took one of the boldest resolutions ever formed by man. He immediately proceeded to the imperial palace, accompanied by five of his prin-



THE DEFEAT OF NARVA.



MONTEZUMA CHAINED.

cipal officers, and arrested Montezuma as his prisoner; carried him off to the Spanish quarters; made him deliver to punishment the officer who had acted by his orders, and publicly acknowledge himself, in the seat of his power, the vassal of the king of Spain.

In the height of these successes, Cortez was informed that a new general, Pamphilo de Narvaez, sent by the governor of Cuba, was arrived with a superior force to supplant him in the command, and reap the fruits of his victory. (A. D. 1520.) He marched against his rival: he defeated him; he took him prisoner; and the vanquished army, gained by the magnanimity and confidence of the victor, ranged themselves under his standard. Thus reinforced, by an occurrence which threatened the extinction of his hopes, he returned with rapidity to the city of Mexico, where he found full occasion for this accession of strength.

The Mexicans were all in arms, and had surrounded the party which Cortez had left to guard the emperor. This insurrection was occasioned by the avarice and intemperate zeal of the Spaniards; who, on a solemn festival in honour of the gods of the country, had massacred two thousand of the Mexican nobles, under pretence of a secret conspiracy, and stripped them of their



CORTES.

precious ornaments. The spirit of the people was roused : they were incensed at the confinement of their prince ; they were filled with holy indignation at the insult offered to the gods, and they longed to revenge the fate of their nobility. Cortez found it difficult to resist their fury. They permitted him, however, to join his detachment, though not from motives of friendship or generosity : they hoped to involve the whole body of Spaniards in one undistinguished ruin. “We have discovered,” said they, “that you are not immortal ; and although the death of every Spaniard should cost us a thousand lives, we are determined to complete your destruction. After so great a slaughter there will still remain a sufficient number to celebrate the victory.”

In consequence of this resolution, the Mexicans attacked the Spanish quarters with incredible bravery. They were several times repulsed, and as often returned to the charge with undiminished ardour. They devoted themselves cheerfully to death ; boldly advanced in the face of the artillery, threw themselves in crowds upon the musketry, and fearlessly grappled the mouths of the guns in attempting to ascend the fortifications. Montezuma judged this a favourable opportunity for obtaining his freedom and the departure of the Spaniards. On those conditions he consented to employ his good offices with his people.



CORTEZ OVERLOOKING THE PLAIN OF OTUMBA.

He showed himself on the ramparts, clad in his royal robes, and endeavoured to induce the multitude to retire. They at first seemed overawed by the presence of their sovereign, and ready to obey his commands; but suddenly recollecting the pusillanimity of his behaviour, their love was changed into hate, their veneration into contempt, and a stone, launched by an indignant arm, at once deprived Montezuma of the empire and his life.

That accident gave sincere concern to Cortez, and was a real misfortune to the Spaniards. The successor of Montezuma was a fierce and warlike prince, and resolutely determined to support the independency of his country. Cortez, after several ineffectual struggles, found himself under the necessity of quitting the city. The Mexicans harassed him in his retreat; they took from him all his baggage and treasure; and they engaged him in the field, before he had time to recruit his forces, with an army of two hundred thousand men. The ensigns of various nations waved in the air, and the imperial standard of massy gold was displayed. Now was the time of heroism; and stronger proofs of it were never exhibited than in the valley of Otumba. "Death or victory!" was the charge, and the resolution of every Spaniard. The Mexicans were soon broken, and a terrible slaughter ensued; but fresh crowds still pressing on, supplied



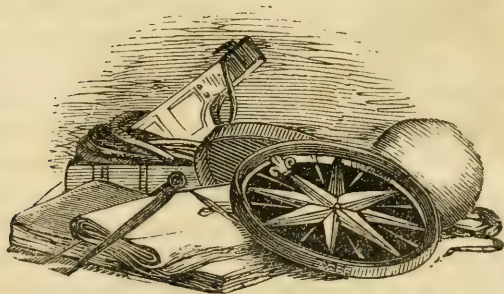
GLADIATORIAL SACRIFICES OF THE MEXICANS.

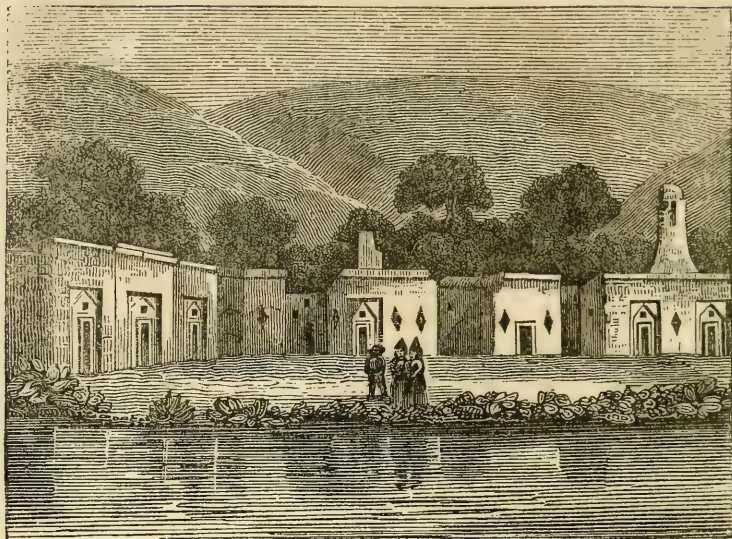
the place of the slain, and the Spaniards must have sunk under the fatigue of continual fighting, had not Cortez, by a happy presence of mind, put an end to the dispute and rendered the victory decisive. He rushed, at the head of his cavalry, towards the imperial standard, closed with the Mexican general who guarded it, and at one stroke of his lance tumbled him out of his litter. The standard was seized, and the consequence proved, as Cortez had expected: the Mexicans threw down their arms, and fled with precipitation and terror.

This victory, and the assistance of the Tlascalans, encouraged Cortez to undertake the siege of Mexico: and another fortunate circumstance enabled him to complete his conquest. The new emperor, Guatimozin, was taken prisoner in attempting to make his escape out of his capital, in order to rouse to arms the distant provinces of his dominions. (A. D. 1521.) The metropolis surrendered, and the whole empire submitted to the Spaniards.

The city of Mexico is represented as one of the most striking

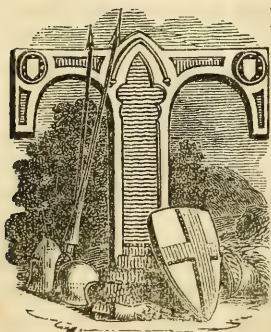
monuments of human grandeur. Its spacious squares, its sumptuous palaces, its magnificent temples, are pompously displayed by the Spanish historians; but we must not give entire credit to those splendid descriptions. The mechanical arts could not be carried to great perfection in a country where the use of iron was unknown; nor could the sciences or liberal arts be cultivated with success among a people ignorant of letters. The hieroglyphics, which the Mexicans are said to have made use of for communicating their ideas, could but imperfectly answer that end, in comparison of general symbols or signs; and without a facile method of recording past transactions, and of preserving our own thoughts and those of others, society can never make any considerable progress. The ferocious religion of the Mexicans is another proof of their barbarity; for although we frequently find absurd ceremonies prevail among polished nations, we seldom or ever meet with those that are cruel. Civilized man has a feeling for man. Human blood was profusely spilled upon the altars of the Mexican gods: and, if we believe the most respectable Spanish historians, human flesh (though only that of enemies) was greedily devoured both by the priests and the people. Enormous superstition and excessive despotism always go hand in hand. When the mind is enslaved, it is easy to enslave the body. Montezuma was the most absolute sovereign upon earth, and his subjects the most abject slaves.





RUINS OF THE PALACE OF THE INCAS.

CONQUEST OF PERU.



HE conquest of Mexico was followed by that of Peru, another country in the New World, abounding yet more in precious metals.

Peru had long been governed by a race of emperors, under the name of Incas, who were supposed to be the descendants of the sun. (A. D. 1532.) The name of the Spanish invader was Pizarro, assisted by Almagro and Luque, and that of the Inca in possession of the crown, Atahualpa. Alarmed at the ravages of the Spaniards, this prince agreed to an interview with their general, in order to settle the conditions of a peace. Though Pizarro solicited the conference, he had no thoughts but of war. The Inca, it is said, was not more sincere in his professions. He came to the place of meeting carried upon a throne of gold, and attended by up-



PIZARRO.

wards of ten thousand men: twenty thousand more are reported to have waited his signal; but for this report, or the insincerity of the Inca, there seems to have been no foundation in fact. All the Peruvians were richly dressed, and their arms glittered with gold and precious stones. The avarice of the Spaniards was inflamed. Pizarro disposed his followers, who did not exceed two hundred, in the most advantageous order, while Vincenti Valverde, a Dominican friar, advanced towards Atahualpa, with a crucifix in one hand and a breviary in the other. He addressed to the Inca, by the help of an interpreter, a long discourse, unfolding the principles of the Christian faith, and pressing him to embrace that religion, and submit himself to the king of Spain, to whom the pope had given Peru. Atahualpa, who had listened with a good deal of patience, replied thus to his pious admonisher: "How extravagant is it in the pope, to give away so liberally that which does not belong to him!—He is inferior, you own, to God the Father, to God the Son, and to God the Holy Ghost: these are all your gods: and the gods only can dispose of kingdoms. I should like to be a friend to



ALMAGRO.

the king of Spain, who has sufficiently displayed his power by sending armies to such distant countries; but I will not be his vassal. I owe tribute to no mortal prince: I know no superior upon earth. The religion of my ancestors I venerate: and to renounce it would be equally absurd and impious, until you have convinced me it is false, and that yours, which you would have me embrace, is true. You adore a god, who died upon a gibbet; I worship the sun, who never dies."

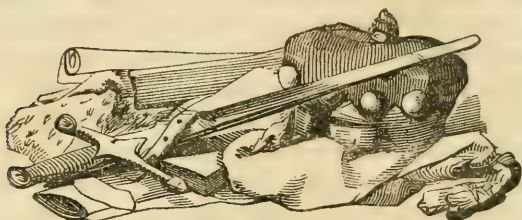
"Vengeance!"—cried Valverde, turning towards the Spaniards;—"vengeance! my friends;—kill these dogs, who despise the religion of the cross."

The word of command was given; the artillery played; the musketry fired; the cavalry spread confusion and terror, while Pizarro advanced, at the head of a chosen band, and seized the person of the Inca. The slaughter was dreadful, and the pillage immense. The blow was final: Peru ceased to be an empire. The descendants of the Sun, who united in their person both the regal and pontifical dignity, sunk under a set of banditti

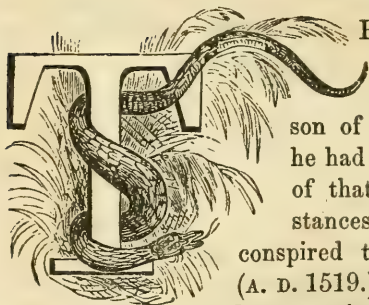
that knew not their birth. After draining Atahualpa of his treasure, under pretence of a ransom for his liberty, Pizarro condemned him to be burnt alive, as an obstinate idolater. (A. D. 1533.) But through the mediation of Father Valverde, (blessed intercessor!) the Inca's sentence was changed into strangling, on condition that he should die in the Christian faith!

The conquest of Mexico and Peru put the Spaniards at once in possession of more specie than all the other nations of Europe. Yet Spain from that era has continued to decline. It has declined in population, industry, and vigour. The vices attendant upon riches have corrupted all ranks of men, and enervated the national spirit. From being the first kingdom in Europe, it is become one of the less considerable. Portugal has experienced a like fate, since the discovery of the passage to India by the Cape of Good Hope, and the settlement of Brazil: and from the same cause, a too great and sudden influx of wealth.





CHARLES V. CHOSEN EMPEROR.



THOUGH Maximilian could not prevail upon the German electors to choose his grandson of Spain king of the Romans, he had disposed their minds in favour of that prince: and other circumstances, on the death of the emperor, conspired to the exaltation of Charles. (A. D. 1519.) The imperial crown had so long continued in the Austrian line, that it began to be considered as hereditary in that family; and Germany, torn by religious disputes, stood in need of a powerful emperor, not only to preserve its own internal tranquillity, but also to protect it against the victorious arms of the Turks, who, under Selim I., threatened the liberties of Europe. This fierce and rapid conqueror had already subdued the Mamalukes, a barbarous militia that had dismembered the empire of the Arabs, and made themselves masters of Egypt and Syria. The power of Charles appeared necessary to oppose that of Selim. The extensive dominions of the house of Austria, which gave him an interest in the preservation of Germany; the rich sovereignty of the Netherlands and Franche-Comté; the entire possession of the great and warlike kingdom of Spain, together with that of Naples and Sicily, all united to hold him up to the first dignity among Christian princes: and the New World

seemed only to be called into existence, that its treasures might enable him to defend Christendom against the infidels. Such was the language of his partisans.

Francis I., however, no sooner received intelligence of the death of Maximilian, than he declared himself a candidate for the empire, and with no less confidence of success than Charles. He trusted to his superior years and experience, with his great reputation in arms, acquired by the victory at Marignan, and the conquest of Milan. And it was further urged in his favour, that the impetuosity of the French cavalry, added to the firmness of the German infantry, would prove irresistible; and not only be sufficient, under a warlike emperor, to set limits to the ambition of Selim, but to break entirely the Ottoman power, and prevent it from ever becoming dangerous again to Germany.

Both claims were plausible. The dominions of Francis were less extensive, but more united than those of Charles. His subjects were numerous, active, brave, lovers of glory and lovers of their king. These were strong arguments in favour of his power, so necessary at this juncture; but he had no natural interest in the Germanic body: and the electors, hearing so much of military force on each side, became more alarmed for their own privileges than the common safety. They determined to reject both candidates, and offered the imperial crown to Frederic, surnamed the Wise, duke of Saxony. But he, undazzled by the splendour of an object courted with so much eagerness by two mighty monarchs, rejected it with a magnanimity no less singular than great.

“In times of tranquillity,” said Frederic, “we wish for an emperor who has no power to invade our liberties; times of danger demand one who is able to secure our safety. The Turkish armies, led by a warlike and victorious monarch, are now assembling: they are ready to pour in upon Germany with a violence unknown in former ages. New conjunctures call for new expedients. The imperial sceptre must be committed to some hand more powerful than mine, or that of any other German prince. We possess neither dominions, nor revenues, nor authority, which enable us to encounter such a formidable enemy. Recourse must be had, in this exigency, to one of the rival monarchs. Each of them can bring into the field forces

sufficient for our defence. But, as the king of Spain is of German extraction, as he is a member and prince of the empire by the territories which descend to him from his grandfather, and as his dominions stretch along that frontier which lies most exposed to the enemy, his claim, in my opinion, is preferable to that of a stranger to our language, to our blood, and to our country." Charles was elected in consequence of this speech.

The two candidates had hitherto conducted their rivalry with emulation, but without enmity. They had even softened their competition by many expressions of friendship and regard. Francis in particular declared, with his usual vivacity, that his brother Charles and he were fairly and openly suitors to the same mistress: "The most assiduous and fortunate," added he, "will win her; and the other must rest contented." But, although a generous and high-minded prince, while animated by the hope of success, might be capable of forming such a philosophic resolution, it soon appeared that he had promised a moderation too refined for humanity, and which he was little able to practise. Charles was elected emperor on the 28th of June, 1520. The preference was no sooner given to his rival than Francis discovered all the passions natural to disappointed ambition. He could not suppress his chagrin and indignation at being balked in his favourite purpose, and rejected in the face of all Europe, for a youth yet unknown to fame. The spirit of Charles resented such contempt: and from this jealousy, as much as from opposition of interests, arose that emulation between those two great monarchs, which involved them in almost perpetual hostilities, and kept their whole age in agitation.





LUTHER SUMMONED BEFORE THE EMPEROR.



HE first act of Charles's administration was the appointing a diet to be held at Worms, in order to concert with the princes of the empire proper measures for checking the progress of "those new and dangerous opinions which threatened to disturb the peace of Germany, and to overturn the religion of their ancestors." The opinions propagated by Luther and his fol-

lowers were here meant. That bold innovator, after the diet at Augsburg and the death of Maximilian, had freely promulgated his opinions, under the protection of the elector of Saxony, to whom the vicariate of that part of Germany which is governed by the Saxon laws was committed, during the interregnum that preceded the election of Charles V. And these opinions were

suffered to take root in different places, and to grow up to some degree of strength and firmness. But Leo X., though little skilled in such controversies, came at last to be alarmed at Luther's progress; and convinced that all hopes of reclaiming him by forbearance were in vain, issued a bull of excommunication against him. His books were ordered to be burnt, and he himself was delivered over to Satan as an obstinate heretic, if he did not, within sixty days, publicly recant his errors.

This sentence neither disconcerted nor intimidated Luther. After renewing his appeal to a general council, he published remarks upon the bull of excommunication, and boldly declared the pope to be the man of sin, or Antichrist, whose appearance is foretold in the Revelation of St. John; declaimed against the tyranny and usurpations of the court of Rome with greater vehemence than ever, exhorted all Christian princes to shake off such an ignominious yoke, and boasted of his own happiness in being marked out as the object of ecclesiastical indignation, because he had ventured to assert the rights of religion and the mental liberty of mankind. Nor did he confine his contempt of the papal power to words alone. He assembled all the professors and students of the university of Wittemberg, and with great pomp, and before a vast multitude of spectators, cast the volumes of the canon law, together with the bull of excommunication, into the flames: and his example was imitated in several other cities.

While the credit and authority of the Roman pontiff were thus furiously shaken in Germany, an attack no less violent, and occasioned by the same causes, was made upon them in Switzerland. The Franciscans, being intrusted with the sale of indulgences in that country, executed their commission with the same unblushing rapaciousness which had rendered the Dominicans so odious in Saxony. They proceeded, however, with uninterrupted success till they arrived at Zurich; where they received a mortal blow from Zuinglius, canon of that place, a man of extensive learning, uncommon sagacity, and heroic intrepidity of spirit. Animated with a republican boldness, and free from those restraints which subjection to the will of a prince, and perhaps a remnant of original prejudice, imposed upon the German reformer, he advanced with more daring and rapid steps to overturn the whole fabric of the established religion;

and the pope's supremacy was soon denied in the greater part of Switzerland.

Such was the state of the Reformation, when Charles V. arrived in Germany. No secular prince had yet embraced the new opinions; no change in the established forms of worship had been introduced, nor any encroachments made upon the possessions or jurisdiction of the clergy: a deep impression, however, was made upon the minds of the people; their reverence for ancient institutions and doctrines was shaken; and the materials were already scattered, which produced the conflagration that afterwards spread over all Europe. Charles saw the flames gathering; and, as he found it necessary to secure the friendship of Leo X., he cited Luther to appear before the diet at Worms. (A. D. 1521.) Luther did not hesitate a moment about yielding obedience: he accompanied the herald who brought the emperor's letter and safe-conduct. "I am lawfully called to appear in that city," said he to some of his friends, who were anxious for his safety: "and thither I will go in the name of the Lord, though as many devils as tiles upon the houses were there assembled against me."

Had vanity and the love of applause, from which no human heart is free, been the sole principles by which Luther was influenced, his reception at Worms was such as he might have reckoned a full reward for all his labours. Vast crowds assembled to see him whenever he walked abroad; and his apartments were daily filled with princes and personages of the highest rank, who treated him with all the respect that is due to superior merit, but which is more particularly commanded by those who possess the power of directing the understanding and the sentiments of others. Rank, or birth can receive no homage so flattering; for they can receive none so sincere, or which has so immediate a reference to those qualities which men call their own. Luther was not, however, intoxicated: he behaved before the diet with equal decency and firmness. He readily acknowledged an excess of vehemence and acrimony in his controversial writings; but he refused to retract his opinions, till convinced of their falsehood, or consent to their being tried by any other standard than the Scripture. Neither threats nor entreaties could prevail on him to depart from this resolution. Some of the fathers therefore proposed to imitate the example of the council of Constance, in its

proceedings relative to John Huss; to commit to the flames the author of this pestilent heresy, now in their power, and deliver the church at once from so dangerous an enemy: but the members of the diet refusing to expose the German integrity to fresh reproach by a second violation of public faith, and Charles being no less unwilling to bring a stain upon the beginning of his administration by such an ignominious measure, Luther was permitted to depart in safety. A few days after he left the city, a severe edict was issued in the emperor's name, and by authority of the diet, forbidding any prince to harbour him, and requiring all to concur in seizing his person as soon as his safe-conduct was expired. But the elector of Saxony, his faithful patron, took him again, though secretly, under protection. Luther, in solitude, propagated his opinions; and Charles, for a time, found other matters to engage his attention.



COSTUME OF THE SIXTEENTH CENTURY.



THE FALL OF RHODES.



WHILE the Christian princes were wasting each other's strength, Solyman the Magnificent entered Hungary with a numerous army, and investing Belgrade, which was deemed the chief barrier of that kingdom against the Turkish arms, soon forced it to surrender. Encouraged by this success, he turned his victorious arms against the island of Rhodes, the seat, at that time, of the knights of St. John of Jerusalem. This small state he attacked with such a numerous army as the lords of Asia have been accustomed in every age to bring into the field. Two hundred thousand men, and a fleet of four hundred sail, appeared against a town defended by a garrison consisting of five thousand soldiers, and six hundred knights, under the command of Villiers de L'Isle Adam, the grand master, whose wisdom and valour rendered him worthy of that station at such a dangerous juncture. No sooner did he begin to suspect the destination of Solyman's vast armaments, than he despatched messengers to all the Christian courts, imploring their aid against the common enemy

But though every prince in that age acknowledged Rhodes to be the great bulwark of Christendom in the east, and trusted to the gallantry of its knights as the best security against the progress of the Ottoman arms; though Adrian, with a zeal which became the head and father of the church, exhorted the contending powers to forget their private quarrels, and, by uniting their arms, to prevent the Infidels from destroying a society which did honour to the Christian name; yet so violent and implacable was the animosity of both parties, that, regardless of the danger to which they exposed all Europe, and unmoved by the entreaties of the grand master or the admonitions of the pope, they suffered Solyman to carry on his operations against Rhodes without disturbance. The grand master, after incredible efforts of courage, of patience, and of military conduct during a siege of six months; after sustaining many assaults, and disputing every post with amazing obstinacy, was obliged at last to yield to numbers; and having obtained an honourable capitulation from the sultan, who admired and respected his virtue, he surrendered the town, which was reduced to a heap of rubbish, and destitute of every resource. Charles V. and Francis I., ashamed of having occasioned such a loss to Christendom by their ambitious contests, endeavoured to throw the blame of it on each other, while all Europe, with greater justice, imputed it equally to both. The emperor, by way of reparation, granted the knights of St. John the small island of Malta, in which they fixed their residence, retaining, though with less power and splendour, their ancient spirit and implacable enmity to the Infidels.





DEATH OF CHEVALIER BAYARD.

CONSPIRACY OF BOURBON AND DEATH OF
BAYARD.

It has already been intimated that Charles V. and Francis I. were often at war. During one of their wars, of which Italy was the theatre, Francis on his march to that country was obliged to stop short at Lyons, in consequence of the discovery of a plot which threatened the destruction of his kingdom.

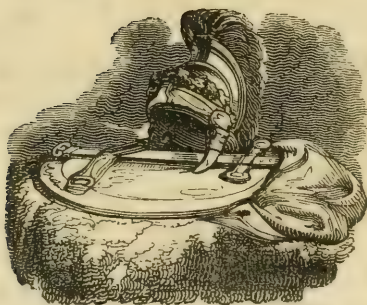
Charles, duke of Bourbon, high constable of France, was a prince of the most shining talents. His great abilities equally fitted him for the council or the field, while his eminent services to the crown entitled him to its first favour. But unhappily Louisa, duchess of Angoulême, the king's mother, had contracted a violent aversion against the house of Bourbon, and had taught her son, over whom she had acquired an absolute ascendant, to view all the constable's actions with a jealous eye. After repeated affronts he retired from court, and began to listen to the advances of the emperor's ministers. Meantime the duchess of Bourbon happened to die; and as the constable was no less handsome than accomplished, the duchess of Angoulême, still susceptible of the tender passions, formed the scheme of marrying him. But Bourbon, who might have expected every thing to which an ambitious mind can aspire, from the doating fondness of a woman who governed her son and the kingdom, incapable of imitating Louisa in her sudden transition from hate to love, or of meanly counterfeiting a passion for one who had so long pursued him with unprovoked malice, treated the proposal with disdain, and even turned it into ridicule. At once refused and insulted by the man whom love only could have made her cease to persecute, Louisa was filled with all the rage of disappointed woman: she resolved to ruin, since she could not marry Bourbon. For this purpose she commenced

an iniquitous suit against him ; and by the chicanery of Chancellor Du Prat, the constable was stript of his whole family estate. Driven to despair by so many injuries, he had recourse to measures which despair only could have dictated. He entered into a secret correspondence with the emperor and the king of England ; and he proposed, as soon as Francis should have crossed the Alps, to raise an insurrection among his numerous vassals, and to introduce foreign troops into the heart of France.

Happily Francis got intimation of this conspiracy before he left the kingdom. But, not being sufficiently convinced of the constable's guilt, he suffered so dangerous an enemy to escape ; and Bourbon, entering into the emperor's service, employed all the resources of his enterprising genius, and his military skill, to the prejudice of his sovereign and his native country. He took a severe revenge for all his wrongs.

In consequence of the discovery of this plot, and the escape of the powerful conspirator, Francis relinquished his intention of leading his army in person into Italy. He was ignorant how far the infection had spread among his subjects, and afraid that his absence might encourage them to make some desperate attack in favour of a man so much beloved. He did not, however, abandon his design on the duchy of Milan ; but sent forward, in order to subdue it, an army of thirty thousand men, under the command of Admiral Bonnivet. Collona, who was intrusted with the defence of that duchy, was in no condition to resist such a force ; and the city of Milan, on which the whole territory depends, must have fallen into the hands of the French, had not Bonnivet, who possessed none of the talents of a general, wasted his time in frivolous enterprises, till the inhabitants recovered from their consternation. The imperial army was reinforced, Colonna died, and Lannoy, viceroy of Naples, succeeded him in the command. (A. D. 1524.) But the military operations were chiefly conducted by the duke of Bourbon and the marquis de Pescara, the two greatest generals of their age. Bonnivet, destitute of the talents necessary to oppose such able commanders, was reduced, after various movements and encounters, to the necessity of attempting a retreat into France. He was pursued by the imperial generals, and routed at Biagrasa.

Here fell the chevalier Bayard, whose contempt of the arts of courts prevented him from ever rising to the chief command, but who was always called, in times of real danger, to the posts of difficulty and importance. Bonnivet being wounded, the conduct of the rear was committed to Bayard. He put himself at the head of the heavy-armed cavalry, and animating them by his presence and example, to sustain the whole shock of the Imperial army, he gained time for the body of his countrymen to make good their retreat. But in that service he received a mortal wound; and being unable any longer to continue on horseback, he ordered one of his attendants to place him under a tree, where he calmly waited the approach of death. In this situation he was found by Bourbon, who led the van of the Imperialists, and expressed much sorrow for his fate. "Pity not me!" cried the high-minded chevalier: "I die, as a man of honour ought, in the discharge of my duty; but pity those who fight against their king, their country, and their oath."





SURRENDER OF FRANCIS I.

BATTLE OF PAVIA, AND CAPTURE OF FRANCIS I.



HE emperor and his allies were less successful in their operations on the frontiers of France. They were baffled on all sides. And Francis, though stripped of his Italian dominions, might still have enjoyed, in safety, the glory of having defended his native kingdom against one-half of Europe, and have bid defiance to all his enemies, could he have moderated his military ardour.

But understanding that the king of England, discouraged by his former fruitless enterprises, and disgusted with the emperor, was making no preparations for invading Picardy, his rage for the conquest of Milan returned; and he deter-

mined, notwithstanding the approach of winter, to march into Italy.

The French army no sooner appeared in Piedmont, than the whole duchy of Milan was thrown into consternation. The capital opened its gates. The forces of the emperor and Sforza retired to Lodi: and had Francis been so fortunate as to pursue them, they must have abandoned that post, and been totally dispersed. But his evil genius led him to besiege Pavia, (Oct. 28,) a town of considerable strength, well garrisoned, and defended by Antonio de Leyva, one of the bravest officers in the Spanish service. Every thing known to the engineers of that age, or which could be effected by the valour of his troops, was attempted in vain by the French monarch against this important place, during a siege of three months. In the mean time, confident of success, he had detached a considerable part of his army to invade the kingdom of Naples: and the main body was much wasted by the fatigues of the siege and the rigour of the season. The imperial generals had not hitherto molested him, but they were not idle. Pescara and Lannoy had assembled forces from all quarters; and Bourbon, having pawned his jewels, had gone into Germany, and levied at his own expense a body of twelve thousand Lansquenets. (A. D. 1525.) The united army advanced to the relief of Pavia, now reduced to extremity for want of ammunition and provisions. Prudence, and the advice of his most experienced officers, dictated to Francis the propriety of a retreat; but his own romantic notions of honour, and the opinion of Bonnivet, unhappily determined him to keep his post. Having said that he would take Pavia or perish in the attempt, he thought it ignominious to depart from that resolution; and he anxiously waited the approach of the enemy.

The imperial generals found the French so strongly intrenched that they hesitated long before they ventured to attack them. But the necessities of the besieged, and the murmurs of their own troops, obliged them at last to put every thing to hazard. Never did armies engage with greater ardour, or with a higher opinion of the battle they were going to fight, (Feb. 24;) never were men more strongly animated with personal emulation, national antipathy, mutual resentment, and all the passions which inspire obstinate bravery. The first efforts of the French valour made the

firmest battalions of the Imperialists give ground; but the fortune of the day was soon changed. The Swiss troops, in the service of France, unmindful of their national honour, shamefully deserted their post. Pescara fell upon the French cavalry with the Imperial horse, intermingled with a considerable number of Spanish foot, armed with the heavy muskets then in use, and broke that formidable body; while Leyva, sallying out with his garrison, during the heat of action, made a furious assault on the enemy's rear, and threw every thing into confusion. The rout became general. But Francis himself, surrounded by a brave nobility, many of whom fell by his side, long sustained the combat. His horse being killed under him, he fought on foot, undistinguished but by his valour, and killed seven men with his own hand. At last he was observed by Pomperant, a French gentleman, who had followed the fortunes of Bourbon, and who now saved the life of his sovereign, ready to sink beneath an enraged soldiery. By his persuasion, Francis was prevailed upon to surrender; yet he obstinately refused, imminent as the danger was, to deliver up his sword to Bourbon. Lannoy received it. But Bourbon had the cruel satisfaction of exulting over his sovereign's distress, and of repaying, from revenge, the insults offered by jealousy.

This victory and the captivity of Francis filled all Europe with alarm. Almost the whole French army was cut off: Milan was immediately abandoned; and in a few weeks not a Frenchman was left in Italy. The power of the emperor, and still more his ambition, became the object of universal terror: and resolutions were everywhere taken to set bounds to it. Meanwhile Francis, deeply impressed with a sense of his misfortune, wrote to his mother Louisa, whom he had left regent of the kingdom, the following short but expressive letter: "All is lost but honour!"

The same courier that delivered this letter carried also despatches to Charles, who received the news of the signal and unexpected success which had crowned his arms with the most hypocritical moderation. He would not suffer any public rejoicings to be made on account of it; and said he only valued it, as it would prove the occasion of restoring peace to Christendom. Louisa, however, did not trust to those appearances. Instead of giving herself up to such lamentations as were natural

to a woman remarkable for maternal tenderness, she discovered all the foresight and exerted all the activity of a consummate politician. She took every possible measure for putting the kingdom in a posture of defence, while she employed all her address to appease the resentment and to gain the friendship of England; and a ray of comfort from that quarter soon broke in upon the French affairs.





LIBERATION OF FRANCIS.



MEANWHILE Francis was rigorously confined; and hard conditions being proposed to him as the price of his liberty, he drew his dagger, and pointing it at his breast, cried, "'Twere better that a king should die thus!" But flattering himself, when he grew cool, that such propositions could not come directly from Charles, he desired that he might be removed to Spain, where the emperor then resided. His request was complied with; but he languished long before he could obtain a sight of his con-

queror. At last he was favoured with a visit; and the emperor, dreading a general combination against him, or that Francis, if driven to despair, might, as he threatened, resign his crown to the dauphin, agreed to abate somewhat of his former demands. A treaty was accordingly concluded at Madrid, (A. D. 1526,) in consequence of which Francis obtained his liberty. The chief article in this treaty was, that Burgundy should be restored to Charles as the rightful inheritance of his ancestors, and that Francis's two eldest sons should be immediately delivered up as hostages for the performance of the conditions stipulated. The exchange of the captive monarch for his children was made on the frontiers of France and Spain. And the moment that Francis entered his own dominions, he mounted a Turkish horse, and putting it to its speed, waved his hand, and cried aloud several times, "I am yet a king! I am yet a king!"

The reputation of the French monarch, however, would have stood in a fairer light had he died a captive; for the unhappy situation of his affairs, delicate as his notions of honour appear to have been, led him henceforth to act a part very disadvantageous to his moral character. He never meant to execute the treaty of Madrid: he had even left a protest in the hands of notaries, before he signed it, that his consent should be considered as an involuntary deed, and be deemed null and void. Accordingly, as soon as he arrived in France, he assembled the states of Burgundy, who protested against the article relative to their province; and when the imperial ambassadors urged the immediate execution of the treaty, the king replied that he would rigorously perform the articles relative to himself, but in those affecting the French monarchy he must be directed by the sense of the nation. He made the highest acknowledgments to the king of England for his friendly interposition, and offered to be entirely guided by his counsels.



DEATH OF BOURBON AND SACKING OF ROME.



HARLES and his ministers now saw that they were overreached in those very arts of negotiation in which they so much excelled, while the Italian states observed with pleasure that Francis was resolved to evade the execution of a treaty which they considered as dangerous to the liberties of Europe. Clement VII. absolved him from the oath which he had taken at Madrid; and the kings of France and England, the Pope, the Swiss, the Venetians, the Florentines, and the Milanese, entered into an alliance, to which they gave the name of the Holy League, because his holiness was at the head of it, in order to oblige the emperor to deliver up Francis's two sons on the payment of a reasonable ransom, and to re-establish Sforza in the quiet possession of the duchy of Milan.

In consequence of this league, the confederate army took the field, and Italy became once more the scene of war. But Francis, who it was expected would infuse spirit and vigour into the whole body, had gone through such a scene of distress that he was become diffident of his talents and distrustful of his fortune. He had flattered himself that the dread alone of such a confederacy would induce Charles to listen to what was equitable, and therefore neglected to send sufficient reinforcements to his allies in Italy. Meantime the duke of Bourbon, who commanded the Imperialists, overran the whole duchy of Milan, of which the emperor had promised him the investiture; and his troops beginning to mutiny for want of pay, he boldly led them to Rome, (A. D. 1527,) in spite of every obstacle, by offering to their avidity the rich spoils of that ancient capital. Nor did he deceive them: for although he himself was slain

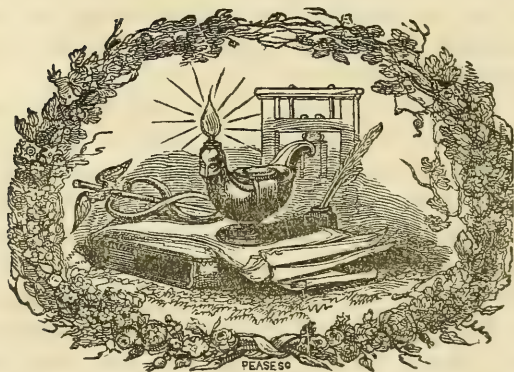
while encouraging their efforts by his brave example, in planting with his own hands a scaling-ladder against the walls, they, more enraged than discouraged by that misfortune, mounted to the assault with the greatest ardour; and, entering the city sword in hand, pillaged it for many days, and made it a scene of horrid carnage and abominable lust.

Never did Rome experience in any age so many calamities, not even from the barbarians, by whom she was successively subdued—from the followers of Alaric, Genseric, or Odoacer, as now from the subjects of a Christian and Catholic monarch. Whatever was respectable in modesty or sacred in religion seemed only the more to provoke the rage of the soldiery. Virgins suffered violation in the arms of their mothers, and upon those altars to which they had fled for safety. Venerable prelates, after being exposed to every indignity, and enduring every torture, were thrown into dungeons, and menaced with the most cruel deaths, in order to make them reveal their secret treasures. Clement himself, who had taken refuge in the castle of St. Angelo, was obliged to surrender at discretion, and found that his sacred character could neither procure him liberty nor respect. He was doomed to close confinement until he should pay an enormous ransom, imposed by the victorious army, and surrender to the emperor all the places of strength belonging to the apostolic see.

Charles received the news of this extraordinary event with equal surprise and pleasure; but, in order to conceal his joy from his Spanish subjects, who were filled with horror at the insult offered to the sovereign pontiff, and to lessen the indignation of the other powers of Europe, he expressed the deepest sorrow for the success of his arms. He put himself and his whole court into mourning, stopped the rejoicings for the birth of his son Philip, and ordered prayers to be put up in all the churches of Spain for the liberation of the pope, which he could immediately have procured by a letter to his generals.

The concern expressed by Henry and Francis, for the calamity of their ally, was more sincere. Alarmed at the progress of the Imperial arms, they had, even before the sacking of Rome, entered into a closer alliance, and proposed to invade the Low Countries with a powerful army; but no sooner did they hear of Clement's captivity than they changed, by a new

treaty, the scene of the projected war from the Netherlands to Italy, and resolved to take the most vigorous measures for restoring his holiness to liberty. Henry, however, contributed only money. A French army crossed the Alps, under the command of Mareschal Lautrec; Clement obtained his freedom, and war was, for a time, carried on by the confederates with success. (A. D. 1528.) But the death of Lautrec, and the revolt of Andrew Doria, a celebrated Genoese admiral, at that time in the service of France, totally changed the face of affairs. He obliged the French garrison in Genoa to surrender, and restore the liberties of his country. The French army was utterly ruined before Naples; and Francis, discouraged, and almost exhausted by so many unsuccessful enterprises, began at length to think of peace, and of obtaining the release of his sons by concessions, instead of the terror of his arms.



EXPEDITIONS OF CHARLES V. AGAINST THE STATES OF BARBARY.



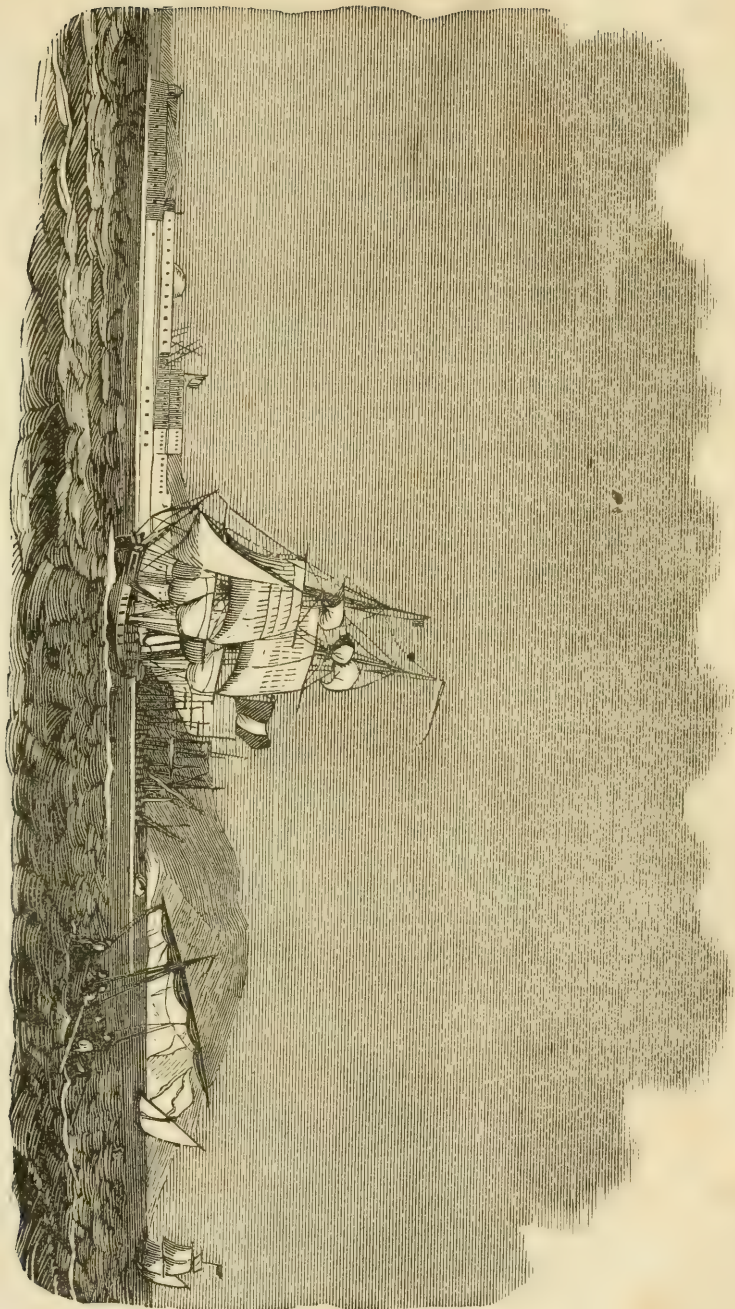
WHILE these things were transacting, Charles undertook an expedition against the piratical states of Africa. Barbary, or that part of the African continent which lies along the coast of the Mediterranean sea, was then nearly in the same condition it is at present. Morocco, Algiers, and Tunis were its principal governments; and the last two were nests of pirates. Barbarossa, a famous corsair, had succeeded his brother in the kingdom of Algiers, which he formerly assisted him to usurp. He regulated with much prudence the interior police of his kingdom, carried on his piracies with great vigour, and extended his conquests on the continent of Africa; but perceiving that the natives submitted to his government with impatience, and fearing that his continual depredations might draw upon him a general combination of the Christian powers, he put his dominions under the protection of the Turkish emperor. Solyman, flattered by such an act of submission, and charmed by the boldness of the man, offered him the command of the Ottoman fleet. Proud of this distinction, Barbarossa repaired to Constantinople, and made use of his influence with his sultan to extend his own dominions. Partly by force, partly by treachery, he usurped the kingdom of Tunis; and being now possessed of greater power, he carried on his depredations against the Christian states with more destructive violence than ever.

Daily complaints of the piracies and ravages committed by the galleys of Barbarossa were brought to the emperor by his subjects, both in Spain and Italy; and all Christendom seemed to look up to Charles, as its greatest and most fortunate prince, for relief from this new and odious species of oppression. At

the same time Muley Hascen, the exiled king of Tunis, finding none of the African princes able or willing to support him in recovering his throne, applied to the victorious Charles for assistance against the usurper. Equally desirous of delivering his dominions from the dangerous neighbourhood of Barbarossa, of appearing as the protector of an unfortunate prince, and of acquiring the glory annexed in that age to every expedition against the Mohammedans, the emperor readily concluded a treaty with Muley Hascen, and set sail for Tunis with a formidable armament.

The Goletta, a strong fortress on an island in the bay of Tunis, and the key of the capital, planted with three hundred pieces of cannon, was taken by storm, (July 25, 1535,) together with all Barbarossa's fleet. He was defeated in a pitched battle; and ten thousand Christian slaves having knocked off their fetters, and made themselves masters of the citadel, Tunis offered to surrender at discretion. But while Charles was deliberating on the means of preserving the lives of the inhabitants, his troops, fearing that they would be deprived of the booty which they had expected, broke suddenly into the town and pillaged and massacred without distinction. Thirty thousand persons perished by the sword, and ten thousand were made prisoners. The sceptre, drenched in blood, was restored to Muley Hascen, on condition that he should acknowledge himself a vassal of the crown of Spain, put into the emperor's hands all the fortified seaports in the kingdom of Tunis, and pay annually twelve thousand crowns for the subsistence of a Spanish garrison in the Goletta. These points being settled, and twenty thousand Christian slaves freed from bondage, either by arms or by treaty, Charles returned to Europe, where his presence was become necessary; while Barbarossa, who had retired to Bona, recovered new strength, and again became the tyrant of the ocean.

Algiers, after the taking of Tunis, became the common receptacle of all the Barbary corsairs; and from the time that Barbarossa, as captain-basha, commanded the Turkish fleet, it had been governed by Hascen Aga, a renegado eunuch, who outdid, if possible, his master in boldness and cruelty. The commerce of the Mediterranean was greatly interrupted by his galleys; and such frequent alarms were given to the coasts of Spain, that there was a necessity for erecting watch-towers at certain



distances, and of keeping a guard constantly employed in order to descry the approach of his squadrons, and to protect the inhabitants from the depredations of the rapacious ruffians with which they were manned.

Charles, before he left Spain, had resolved to humble this daring corsair, and to exterminate the lawless crew who had so long infested the ocean. With this view he had ordered a fleet and army to assemble on the coast of Italy; and although the autumn was now far advanced, he obstinately persisted in his purpose, notwithstanding the remonstrances of Andrew Doria, who conjured him not to expose so noble an armament to almost inevitable destruction, by venturing at so late a season to approach the stormy coast of Algiers. Doria's words proved prophetic.

No sooner had the emperor landed in Barbary, (1541,) than a frightful hurricane arose, scattered his fleet, and dashed great part of it in pieces; while he and his land forces were exposed to all the fury of the elements, in an enemy's country, without a hut or a tent to shelter them, or so much as a spot of firm ground on which they could rest their wearied bodies. In this calamitous situation, cold and wet, they continued during several days, harassed at the same time by the attacks of the Algerines. At last, Doria happily being able to assemble the remains of the fleet, Charles was glad to re-embark, after having lost the greater part of his army, by the inclemency of the weather, famine, or the sword of the enemy. And the men who yet survived were doomed to encounter new miseries in their return; the fleet being scattered by a fresh storm, and the ships obliged to take shelter, separately, in those parts of Spain or Italy they could first reach.





HENRY VIII.

THE REFORMATION IN ENGLAND.



O prince had ever ascended the throne of England with more advantages than Henry VIII. (A. D. 1509.) His title to the crown was undisputed ; his treasury was full ; his subjects were in tranquillity ; and the vigour and comeliness of his person, his freedom of manner, his love of show, and his dexterity in every manly exercise, rendered his accession highly popular, while his proficiency in literature and his reputation for talents made his character respectable. Every thing seemed to prognosticate a happy and prosperous reign.

He had been affianced during his father's lifetime to the Infanta Catharine, his brother's widow ; and, notwithstanding some scruples on that step, he now agreed that their nuptials should be celebrated. We shall afterwards have occasion to observe the extraordinary effects of this marriage, and of the king's remorse, either real or pretended.

Some princes have been their own ministers, but almost every one has had either a minister or a favourite: Wolsey was both to Henry. Being admitted to the youthful monarch's pleasures, he took the lead in every jovial conversation, and promoted, notwithstanding his religious habit, all that frolic and gayety which he found to be agreeable to the age and inclinations of the king. During the intervals of amusement, he introduced business and state affairs, and insinuated those maxims of conduct which he was desirous his master should pursue. By these means he insensibly acquired that absolute ascendant over Henry which distinguished his administration; and the people saw, with concern, every day new instances of his uncontrolled authority.

The duke of Buckingham, lord high constable of England, the first nobleman in the kingdom both in family and fortune, having wantonly given disgust to Wolsey, soon found reason to repent his imprudence. He was descended by a female from the duke of Gloucester, youngest son of Edward III., and being infatuated with judicial astrology, he consulted with a Carthusian friar, named Hopkins, who flattered him with the hope of ascending one day the English throne. He had even been so unguarded as to utter some expressions against the king's life. The cardinal made these the grounds of an impeachment; and although Buckingham's threats seem to have proceeded more from indiscretion than deliberate malice, he was brought to trial, condemned, and executed. (A. D. 1521.) The office of high constable, which this nobleman inherited from the Bohuns, earls of Hereford, being forfeited by his attainder, was never afterward revived in England.

The next memorable event in the domestic history of this reign, is the divorce of Queen Catharine. The king's scruples in regard to the lawfulness of his marriage increased with the decay of the queen's beauty. She had borne him several children, but they were all dead except the princess Mary; and Henry was passionately fond of male issue. He consulted his confessor, the bishop of Lincoln, on the legality of marrying a brother's widow, and found that prelate possessed with some doubts and difficulties. He next proceeded to examine the question by his own learning and study, being himself a great divine and casuist; and having had recourse to the works of

his oracle, Thomas Aquinas, he discovered that this celebrated doctor had expressly declared against the lawfulness of such marriages. The archbishop of Canterbury was now applied to, and desired to consult his brethren. All the prelates in England, except Fisher, bishop of Rochester, unanimously declared under their hand and seal, that they deemed the king's marriage unlawful. (A. D. 1527.) Wolsey also fortified his master's scruples, and the bright eyes of Anne Boleyn, maid of honour to the queen, carried home every argument to the heart of Henry more forcibly than even the suggestions of that powerful favourite.

This young lady was daughter of Sir Thomas Boleyn, who had been employed by Henry in several embassies, and was allied to all the chief nobility in the kingdom. She had been carried over to Paris in early youth, by the king's sister, when espoused to Louis XII. of France; and the graces of her mind, no less than the beauty of her person, had distinguished her even in that polished court. The time at which she returned to England is not certainly known; but it appears to have been after the king had entertained doubts concerning the lawfulness of his marriage. She immediately caught the roving and amorous eye of Henry; and as her virtue and modesty left him no hope of licentious indulgences, he resolved to raise her to the throne, which her accomplishments, both natural and acquired, seemed equally fitted to adorn.

But many bars were yet in the way of Henry's wishes. It was not only necessary to obtain a divorce from the pope, but a revocation of the bull which had been granted for his marriage with Catharine, before he could marry Anne: and he had to combat all the interest of the emperor, whose aunt he was going to degrade. The king of England, however, did not despair of success. He was in high favour with the court of Rome, and he deserved to be so. He had not only opposed the progress of the Lutheran tenets, by all the influence which his extensive and almost absolute authority conferred upon him, but he had even written a book against them: a performance in itself not contemptible, and which gave so much pleasure to Leo X. that he conferred upon Henry the title of *Defender of the Faith*. Sensible, therefore, of his importance, as the chief pillar of the church, at a time when it stood in much need of support, he



WOLSEY.

confidently applied to Clement VII., the reigning pontiff, for a dissolution of his marriage with Catharine.

The pope seemed at first favourable to Henry's inclinations ; but his dread of displeasing the emperor, whose prisoner he had lately been, prevented him from coming to any fixed determination. (A. D. 1529.) He at last, however, empowered Campeggio and Wolsey, his two legates in England, to try the validity of the king's marriage. They accordingly opened their court at London, and proceeded to the examination of the matter. The first point which came before them, and that which Henry wanted chiefly to establish, was Arthur's consummation of his marriage with Catharine ; and although the queen protested that her virgin honour was yet untainted when the king received her into his bed, and even appealed to his grace (the title then taken by English kings) for the truth of her asseveration, stronger proofs than were produced could not be expected of such a fact, after so long an interval. But when the business seemed drawing to a close, and while Henry was in anxious expectation of a sentence in his favour, all his hopes were suddenly blasted. Campeggio, on the most frivolous pretences, prorogued the court ; and Clement, at the intercession of the emperor, revoked the cause soon after to Rome.

This finesse occasioned the fall of Wolsey. Anne Boleyn imputed to him the failure of her expectations, and Henry, who entertained the highest opinion of the cardinal's capacity, ascribed his miscarriage in the present undertaking, not to misfortune or mistake, but to the malignity or infidelity of that minister. The great seal was taken from him, and given to Sir Thomas More, a man of learning, virtue, and capacity. He was indicted in the Star-Chamber ; his lands and goods were declared forfeited ; his houses and furniture were seized ; he was pronounced without the protection of the laws, and his person liable to be committed to custody. The king's heart, however, relented, and the prosecution was carried no farther ; but the cardinal was ordered to remove from court, and his final ruin was hanging over him.

The parliament laid hold of the present opportunity to pass several bills, restraining the impositions of the clergy ; and Henry was not displeased that the pope and his whole militia should be made sensible of their dependence upon him, and of

the willingness of his subjects, if he was so disposed, to reduce the power and privileges of ecclesiastics. Amid the anxieties with which he was agitated, he was often tempted to break off all connection with Rome: and Anne Boleyn used every insinuation, in order to make him proceed to extremities with Clement; both as the readiest and surest means of her exaltation to the royal dignity, and of spreading the new doctrines, in which she had been initiated under the duchess of Alençon, a warm friend to the Reformation. But Henry, notwithstanding these inducements, had still many reasons to desire a good agreement with the sovereign pontiff. Having been educated in a superstitious veneration for the holy see, he dreaded the reproach of heresy; and he abhorred all alliance with the Lutherans, the chief opponents of the papal power, because Luther, their apostle, had handled him roughly, in an answer to his book in defence of the Romish communion.

While Henry was fluctuating between these contrary opinions, two of his courtiers fell accidentally, one evening, into company with Dr. Thomas Cranmer, fellow of Jesus College, in Cambridge, a man distinguished by his learning, but still more by his candour; and, as the affair of the divorce became the subject of conversation, he observed, that the best way, either to quiet the king's conscience or obtain the pope's consent, would be to consult all the universities in Europe with regard to that controverted point. (A. D. 1530.) When Henry was informed of this proposal, he was delighted with it, and swore with great violence, "By God! Cranmer has got the right sow by the ear." The doctor was immediately sent for, and taken into favour, the universities were consulted, according to his advice, and all of them declared the king's marriage invalid.

Clement, however, lying still under the influence of the emperor, continued inflexible; and, as Henry was sensible that the extremities to which he was pushed, both against the pope and the ecclesiastical order, must be disagreeable to Wolsey, whose opposition he dreaded, he renewed the prosecution against his ancient favourite.

The cardinal, after his disgrace, had remained for some time at Richmond; but, being ordered to remove to his see of York, he took up his residence at Cawood, in Yorkshire, where he rendered himself extremely popular in the neighbourhood by

his affability and hospitality. In this retreat he lived, when the earl of Northumberland received orders to arrest him for high treason, and conduct him to London as a prelude to his trial. On his journey he was seized with a disorder, which turned into a dysentery; and it was with much difficulty that he was able to reach Leicester abbey. "I am come to lay my bones among you," said Wolsey to the abbot and monks, who came out to receive him: and he immediately took to his bed, whence he never rose more. "Oh! had I but served my God," cried he, a little before he expired, "as diligently as I have served my king, he would not have deserted me in my gray hairs." His treason, indeed, seems rather to have been against the people than the prince, or even the state; for although the violence and obstinacy of Henry's character ought perhaps to apologize for many of the cardinal's public measures, his continued extortions upon the subject, by the most iniquitous methods, in what he called his Legantine court, admit of no alleviation.

Thus freed from a person whom he considered as an obstacle in the way of his inclinations, and supported by the opinion of the learned in the step which he intended to take, Henry ordered a parliament, together with a convocation, to meet; in which he was acknowledged "the Protector and supreme Head of the Church and Clergy of England." (A. D. 1531.) And being now fully determined in his own mind relative to a matter which had long engaged his thoughts, and resolved to administer ecclesiastical affairs without having farther recourse to Rome, (A. D. 1532,) as well as to abide all consequences, he privately celebrated his marriage with Anne Boleyn, whom he had previously created marchioness of Pembroke.

Cranmer, now become archbishop of Canterbury, annulled soon after the king's marriage with Catharine, (a step which ought to have preceded his second nuptials,) and ratified that with Anne, who was publicly crowned queen, with all the pomp and dignity suited to such a ceremony. And, to complete the satisfaction of Henry on the conclusion of this troublesome business, the queen was safely delivered of a daughter, (A. D. 1533,) who received the name of Elizabeth, and whom we shall afterwards see swaying the English sceptre with equal glory to herself and happiness to her people.

When intelligence was conveyed to Rome of these transactions, the conclave was all in a rage, and the pope was urged by the cardinals of the imperial faction to dart his spiritual thunders against Henry. But Clement was still unwilling to proceed to extremities: he only declared Cranmer's sentence null, and threatened the king with excommunication, if he did not put things in their former condition, before a day named. In the mean time Henry was prevailed upon, by the mediation of the king of France, to submit his cause to the Roman consistory, provided the cardinals of the Imperial faction were excluded from it. The pope consented, and promised that, if the king would sign a written agreement to this purpose, his demands should be fully complied with. But on what slight incidents often depend the greatest events! The courier appointed to carry the king's written promise was detained beyond the day fixed; news arrived at Rome that a libel had been published in London against the holy see, and a farce acted before the king in derision of the apostolic body. The pope and cardinals entered into the consistory inflamed with rage; the marriage between Henry and Catharine was pronounced valid; the king was declared excommunicated if he refused to adhere to it, and the rupture with England was rendered final.

The English parliament, assembled soon after this decision of the court of Rome, (A. D. 1534,) conferred on the king the title of "*The only supreme HEAD of the Church of England upon Earth,*" as they had already invested him with all the real power belonging to it; a measure of the utmost consequence to the kingdom, whether considered in a civil or ecclesiastical view, and which forms a memorable era in their constitution. The legislature, by thus acknowledging the king's supremacy in ecclesiastical matters, and uniting the spiritual with the civil power, introduced greater simplicity into government, and prevented all future disputes about the limits of contending jurisdictions. A door was also opened for checking the exorbitances of superstition, and breaking those shackles by which human reason, policy, and industry had so long been circumscribed; for, as a profound historian has justly observed, the prince, being head of the religious as well as of the temporal jurisdiction of the kingdom, though he might sometimes be tempted to employ the former as an engine of government,



CRANMER.

could have no interest, like the Roman pontiff, in encouraging its usurpations.

But England, though thus happily released from the oppressive jurisdiction of the pope, was far from enjoying religious freedom. Liberty of conscience was, if possible, more confined than ever. Henry not only retained his aversion against Luther and his doctrines, but so many of his early prejudices hung about him, that the idea of heresy still filled him with horror. Separate as he stood from the Catholic church, he continued to value himself on maintaining its dogmas, and on guarding with fire and sword the imaginary purity of his speculative opinions. All who denied the king's supremacy, the legitimacy of his daughter Elizabeth, or who embraced the tenets of the reformers, were equally the objects of his vengeance. Among the latter were many unhappy persons, who had greedily imbibed the Lutheran doctrines, during Henry's quarrel with Rome, in hopes of a total change of worship, and who, having gone too far to recede, fell martyrs to their new faith. Among the former were Fisher, bishop of Rochester, and Sir Thomas More, late chancellor, who refused to acknowledge the king's supremacy, and died upon the scaffold with heroic constancy. (A. D. 1535.) More, who was a man of a gay humour, retained even his facetiousness to the last. When he laid his head on the block, and saw the executioner ready with his weapon, "Stay, friend," said he, "till I put aside my beard; for," added he, "it never committed treason." What pity, and what an instance of the inconsistency of human nature, that the man who could make a jest of death, should make a matter of conscience of the pope's supremacy!

Although Henry thus punished both Protestants and Catholics, his most dangerous enemies, he was sensible, were the zealous adherents to the ancient religion, and more especially the monks, who, having their immediate dependence on the Roman pontiff, apprehended their own ruin to be the certain consequence of abolishing his authority in England. The king therefore determined to suppress the monasteries, as so many nurseries of rebellion, as well as of idleness, superstition, and folly, and to put himself in possession of their ample revenues. In order to effectuate this robbery with some colour of justice, he appointed commissioners to visit all religious houses; and

these men, acquainted with the king's design, brought reports, whether true or false, of such frightful disorders, lewdness, ignorance, priestcraft, and unnatural lusts, as filled the nation with horror against institutions held sacred by their ancestors, and lately objects of the most profound veneration. The lesser monasteries, said to have been the most corrupted, to the number of three hundred and seventy-six, were at once suppressed by parliament, (A. D. 1536;) and their revenues, goods, chattels, and plate were granted to the king.





LADY JANE GREY.



THE CROWN OFFERED TO LADY JANE GREY.

ACCESSION OF EDWARD VI.

HENRY VIII. died January 28, 1547, leaving the throne to his only son, a boy of ten years of age, who was immediately proclaimed king under the title of EDWARD VI. The duke of Somerset, maternal uncle to the young king, became supreme ruler, under the title of Protector, and continued to maintain the Protestant doctrines. Under this reign, the church of England assumed its present form, and the Book of Common Prayer was composed nearly as it now exists. Somerset being resolved to effect, if possible, the match between Edward VI. and Mary of Scotland, invaded that country in autumn 1547, and met was at Musselburgh by a large army under the governor, the earl of Arran. Though the Scotch were animated by bitter animosity against the English, against their religion, and against the object of their expedition, they did not fight with their usual resolution, but were defeated, and pursued with great slaughter. Finding them still obstinate in refusing to give up their queen, Somerset laid waste a great part of the country, and then retired. Previous to this period, Cardinal Beaton had been assassinated by private enemies: but the Scotch were encouraged to persevere by the court of France, to which they now sent the young queen for protection.

In the reign of Edward VI. the government was conducted mildly, until the protector Somerset was degraded from his authority by the rising influence of Dudley, duke of Northumberland, who caused him soon after to be tried and executed. Northumberland, who was secretly a Roman Catholic, was not so mild or popular a ruler. Yet throughout the whole reign of Edward VI., which was terminated by his death on the 6th of July, 1553, at the early age of sixteen, no religious party was persecuted, except those who denied the fundamental doctrines of the Christian religion. It would have been well for the honour of a church which has produced many great men, and to which the modern world is indebted for the very existence of Christianity, if it had not been tempted after this period to commence a very different course of action. The crown now belonged by birthright to Mary, the eldest daughter of Henry VIII., who was a zealous Catholic. Northumberland, however, assuming the illegitimacy of that princess and her sister Elizabeth, set up as queen the Lady Jane Grey, who was descended from a younger sister of king Henry, and who had been married to a son of the duke of Northumberland. Lady Jane was the most beautiful, most intelligent, and most amiable of all the females who appear in the history of England. Though only seventeen, she was deeply learned, and yet preserved all the unaffected graces of character proper to her interesting age. Unfortunately, her father-in-law Northumberland was so much disliked that the Catholics were enabled to displace her from the throne in eight days, and set up in her stead the princess Mary. Northumberland, Lady Jane, and her husband, Guilford Lord Dudley, were all beheaded by that savage princess, who soon after took steps for restoring the Catholic religion, and married Philip II., king of Spain, in order to strengthen herself against the Protestant interest. Mary experienced some resistance from her Protestant subjects, and being under great suspicion of her sister Elizabeth, who professed the reformed faith, but took no part against her, was almost on the point of ordering her to execution also. As soon as she had replaced the Catholic system, and found herself in possession of sufficient power, she began that career of persecution which has rendered her name so infamous.





GARDINER.

PERSECUTIONS OF THE PROTESTANTS IN
QUEEN MARY'S REIGN.

IN consequence of her reconciliation with the see of Rome, Mary had recourse to the punishment by fire, that frightful expedient of superstition, for extending her empire, and preserving her dominion. The mild counsels of Cardinal Pole, who was inclined to toleration, were overruled by Gardiner and Bonner, and many persons of all conditions, ages, and sexes were committed to the flames. The persecutors made their first attack upon Rogers, prebendary of St. Paul's; a man equally distinguished by his piety and learning, but whose domestic situation, it was hoped, would bring him to compliance. He had a wife, whom he tenderly loved, and ten children; yet did he continue firm in his principles, and such was his serenity after condemnation, that the jailers, it is said, waked him from a sound sleep, when the hour of his execution approached. He suffered in Smithfield, (A. D. 1555.) Hooper, bishop of Gloucester, was condemned at the same time with Rogers, but sent to his own diocese to be punished, in order to strike the greater terror into his flock. The constancy of his death, however, had a very contrary effect. It was a scene of consolation to Hooper to die in their sight, bearing testimony to that doctrine which he had formerly taught among them. He continued to exhort them, till his tongue, swollen by the violence of his agony, denied him utterance: and his words were long remembered.

Ferrar, bishop of St. David's, also suffered this terrible punishment in his own diocese. And Ridley, bishop of London, and Latimer, formerly bishop of Worcester, two prelates, vene-

rable by their years, their learning, and their piety, perished together in the same fire at Oxford, supporting each other's constancy by their mutual exhortations. Latimer, when tied to the stake, called to his companion, "Be of good cheer, my brother! we shall this day kindle such a flame in England, as, i trust in God, will never be extinguished."

Sanders, a respectable clergyman, was committed to the flames at Coventry. A pardon was offered him if he would recant; but he rejected it with disdain, and embraced the stake, saying, "Welcome, cross of Christ! welcome, everlasting life!" Cranmer had less courage at first. Overawed by the prospect of those tortures which awaited him, or overcome by the fond love of life, and by the flattery of artful men, who pompously represented the dignities to which his character still entitled him, if he would merit them by a recantation, he agreed, in an unguarded hour, to subscribe to the doctrines of the papal supremacy and the real presence. But Mary and her council, no less perfidious than cruel, determined that this recantation should avail him nothing; that he should acknowledge his errors in the church before the people, and afterward be led to execution. Whether Cranmer received secret intelligence of their design, or repented of his weakness, or both, is uncertain; but he surprised the audience by a declaration very different from that which was expected from him. After explaining his sense of what he owed to God and his sovereign, "There is one miscarriage in my life," said he, "of which, above all others, I severely repent—the insincere declaration of faith to which I had the weakness to subscribe; but I take this opportunity of atoning for my error by a sincere and open recantation, and am willing to seal with my blood that doctrine which I firmly believe to have been communicated from Heaven." (A. D. 1556.)

As his hand, he added, had erred, by betraying his heart, it should first be punished by a severe but just doom. He accordingly stretched out his arm, as soon as he came to the stake, to which he was instantly led, and without discovering, either by his looks or motions, the least sign of compunction, or even of feeling, he held his right hand in the flames till it was utterly consumed. His thoughts appeared to be totally occupied in reflecting on his former fault; and he called aloud several times, "This hand has offended!" When it dropped off he discovered



QUEEN MARY. From a Painting by Holbein.





LATIMER.



a serenity in his countenance, as if satisfied with sacrificing to divine justice the instrument of his crime; and when the fire attacked his body, his soul, wholly collected within itself, seemed fortified against every external accident, and altogether inaccessible to pain.

It would be endless to enumerate all the cruelties practised in England during this bigoted reign, near three hundred persons having been brought to the stake in the first rage of persecution. Besides, the savage barbarity on the one hand, and the patient constancy on the other, are so similar in all those martyrdoms, that a narration, very little agreeable in itself, would become altogether disgusting by its uniformity. It is sufficient to have mentioned the sufferings of the most eminent reformers, whose character and condition make such notice necessary. We shall therefore conclude this subject with observing, that human nature appears on no occasion so detestable, and at the same time so absurd, as in these religious horrors, which sink mankind below infernal spirits in wickedness, and beneath the brutes in folly. Bishop Bonner seemed to rejoice in the torments of the victims of persecution. He sometimes whipped the Protestant prisoners with his own hands, till he was tired with the violence of the exercise: he tore out the beard of a weaver, who refused to relinquish his religion; and, in order to give the obstinate heretic a more sensible idea of burning, he held his finger to the candle, till the sinews and veins shrunk and burst. All these examples prove that no human depravity can equal revenge and cruelty, inflamed by theological hate.





CHARLES V. AND TURRIANO SURPRISING THE MONKS WITH THEIR CURIOUS PUPPETS.

RESIGNATION OF CHARLES V.

IN the year 1556, an event happened which astonished all Europe, and confounded the reasonings of the wisest politicians. The emperor Charles V., though no more than fifty-six, an age when objects of ambition operate with full force on the mind, and are generally pursued with the greatest ardour, had for some time formed the resolution of resigning his hereditary dominions to his son Philip. He now determined to put it in execution. Various have been the opinions of historians concerning a resolution so singular and unexpected; but the most probable seem to be, the disappointments which Charles had met with in his ambitious hopes, and the daily decline of his health. He had early in life been attacked with the gout; and the fits were now become so frequent and severe, that not only the vigour of his constitution was broken, but the faculties of his mind

were sensibly impaired. He, therefore, judged it more decent to conceal his infirmities in some solitude, than to expose them any longer to the public eye : and, as he was unwilling to forfeit the fame or lose the acquisitions of his better years, by attempting to guide the reins of government when he was no longer able to hold them with steadiness, he prudently determined to seek, in the tranquillity of retirement, that happiness which he had in vain pursued amid the tumults of war and the intrigues of state.

In consequence of this resolution, Charles, who had already ceded to his son Philip the kingdom of Naples and the duchy of Milan, assembled the states of the Low Countries at Brussels; and seating himself, for the last time, in the chair of state, he explained to his subjects the reasons of his resignation, and solemnly devolved his authority upon Philip. He recounted with dignity, but without ostentation, all the great things which he had undertaken and performed since the commencement of his administration : and that enumeration gives us the highest idea of his activity and industry. "I have dedicated," observed he, "from the seventeenth year of my age, all my thoughts and attention to public objects, reserving no portion of my time for the indulgence of ease, and very little for the enjoyment of private pleasure. Either in a pacific or hostile manner, I have visited Germany nine times; Spain six times; France four times; Italy seven times; the Low Countries ten times; England twice; Africa as often; and, while my health permitted me to discharge the duties of a sovereign, and the vigour of my constitution was equal in any degree to the arduous office of governing such extensive dominions, I never shunned labour, nor repined under fatigue; but now, when my health is broken, and my vigour exhausted by the rage of an incurable distemper, my growing infirmities admonish me to retire; nor am I so fond of reigning as to retain the sceptre in an impotent hand, which is no longer able to protect my subjects.

"Instead of a sovereign worn out with diseases," continued he, "and scarce half alive, I give you one in the prime of life, already accustomed to govern, and who adds to the vigour of youth all the attention and sagacity of maturer years." Then turning towards Philip, who fell on his knees and kissed his father's hand, "It is in your power," said Charles, "by a wise

and virtuous administration, to justify the extraordinary proof which I give this day of my paternal affection, and to demonstrate that you are worthy of the confidence which I repose in you. Preserve," added he, "an inviolable regard for religion; maintain the Catholic faith in its purity; let the laws of your country be sacred in your eyes; encroach not on the rights of your people; and, if the time should ever come when you shall wish to enjoy the tranquillity of private life, may you have a son to whom you can resign your sceptre with as much satisfaction as I give mine to you." A few weeks after, the emperor also resigned to Philip the Spanish crown, with all the dominions depending upon it, in the Old as well as in the New World; reserving nothing to himself, out of all those vast possessions, but an annual pension of one hundred thousand ducats.

Soon after his abdication, he desired father Johanne de Regla to be his confessor. The good father some time refused: Charles said to him, "Holy father, do not be alarmed at having the care of the conscience of an emperor, which, for this last year past, five doctors of canon law and of divinity have undertaken to relieve."

In his retirement at St. Just, he and Turriano amused themselves with making collections of clocks and watches, and automaton images, and in observing their different motions, and used to observe, with a sigh, how ill he had spent his time in endeavouring to make mankind think alike in religious matters, when he had never been able to make two watches go perfectly together.





QUEEN ELIZABETH.

ACCESSION OF QUEEN ELIZABETH.



WHEN Queen Mary's death was announced to the parliament, which happened to be assembled at the time, the members all sprang from their seats; and shouts of joy, and the words "God save Queen Elizabeth!" were heard to resound on every side. When the news was spread abroad, the transport of the people was so great that they hurried in crowds towards Hatfield, where Elizabeth was then residing, and escorted her into London. Elizabeth was then twenty-five years old.

The new queen, from her first coming to the throne, seemed anxious to show an entire forgetfulness of all her former sufferings, and never testified any resentment towards those who had been instrumental to them. Even Sir Henry Benefield, in whose custody she had been for a time, and whom she had found a severe jailer, experienced from her no other punishment or rebuke, but that of her telling him that he should have the custody of any state prisoner whom she wished to be treated with peculiar severity. The cruel Bonner was the only one of her sister's ministers to whom she showed a marked dislike. She turned from him with horror, and would never speak to him nor look at him.

The first great anxiety of all the Protestant part of the nation was to have a settlement of the affairs of the church. In this important business Elizabeth proceeded with great prudence and caution, and yet with so much determination and steadiness that she soon replaced every thing in the state it had been at her brother's death; and all without one drop of blood being spilt, or a single estate confiscated. Bonner alone, for refusing to acknowledge her supremacy, was punished by being imprisoned for life.

Philip, as soon as he heard of Queen Mary's death, proposed

himself to her sister in marriage. Elizabeth never for a moment thought of consenting to such a union; but, perhaps, for fear of making him her enemy, or perhaps from her accustomed caution, she delayed to give a decisive answer as long as she could; and when she sent her refusal, she took the opportunity of declaring to the parliament a determination to lead a single life.

Notwithstanding this declaration, Elizabeth some years afterwards admitted the addresses of the duke of Anjou, the brother of the king of France. But partly through her fear of lessening her own authority, if she admitted another to share it, and partly, perhaps, from love to her people, which made her unwilling to give them a foreign king, she broke off the match, after keeping the duke long in suspense.

The pretensions of Mary, the young queen of Scotland, were an early source of disquiet to Elizabeth. Mary was great-niece of Henry VIII., and on the plea that Elizabeth had been declared illegitimate, she asserted her own right to the crown, and took upon her the arms and title of queen of England. And though this empty boast was not followed by any active attempt, it yet laid the foundation in Elizabeth's mind of a deadly hatred towards her.

Mary had been married to the dauphin, who, on his father's death, became king of France, by the title of Francis II.; and she had thus been, for a brief season, the queen of the most splendid court in Europe, into all the dissipations of which she entered eagerly. When, on the early death of Francis, she was obliged to return to Scotland, the contrast between the country she left and that which she was now come to inhabit struck her with melancholy; and the rude manners of the Scots filled her with disgust.

This disgust was increased by difference of religion. Mary had been brought up a bigoted Catholic; and the Reformation, which had now made great progress in Scotland, was not marked there with a mild and conciliatory spirit. The Scotch reformers were men of rigid zeal, and condemned all gayety and amusements as sinful. *They* were as much shocked at the queen's levities, as *she* was displeased by their austerity.

While these discontents were growing in Scotland, the queen of England was busily employed in putting the affairs of her



LORD BURLEIGH.

kingdom in order. She called in the old coin, which had been shamefully debased in the last three reigns, and replaced it by a coinage of the standard weight. She filled her arsenals with arms ; she introduced the manufacturing of gunpowder into England ; she frequently reviewed her militia, and put the country into a complete state of defence ; she encouraged agriculture, trade, and navigation, and increased her navy so much that she has been called “ the queen of the northern seas.”

Elizabeth’s wise government was respected abroad and prosperous at home. She was exceedingly fortunate in the choice of her ministers ; particularly in her treasurer, Lord Burleigh, and her secretary Walsingham, who were men of extraordinary abilities and integrity. While affairs were managed with so much vigour and success, her people were scarcely aware in how great a degree their queen kept gradually enlarging her prerogative, nor how much their own liberties were infringed.

DEATH OF MARY, QUEEN OF SCOTS.



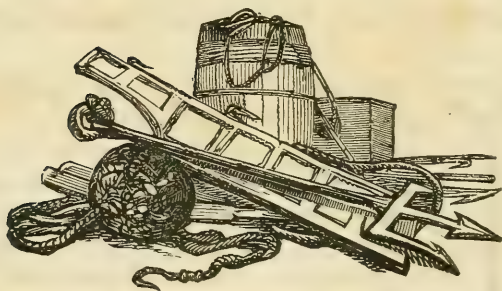
THE Catholic powers of the continent formed many schemes for annoying or dethroning Elizabeth; and the imprisoned Scottish queen, or her adherents, were generally concerned in them. The king of Spain, determined at length to make a decisive effort, commenced the preparation of a vast fleet, which he termed the Invincible Armada, and with which he designed to invade the English shores. Elizabeth, her ministers, and people beheld the preparations with much concern, and their fears were increased by the plots which were incessantly forming among her Catholic subjects in behalf of the queen of Scots. An act was passed declaring that any person by or *for* whom any plot should be made against the queen of England should be guilty of treason. When, soon after, a gentleman named Babington formed a conspiracy for assassinating Elizabeth and placing Mary on the throne, the latter queen became of course liable to the punishment for treason, although herself innocent. She was subjected to a formal trial in her prison of Fotheringay Castle, and found guilty. Elizabeth hesitated for some time to strike an unoffending and unfortunate person, related to her in blood and her equal in rank. But at length fears for herself got the better of her sense of justice, and it may be added of her good sense, and she gave her sanction to an act which leaves an ineffaceable stain upon her memory. On the 7th of February, 1587, Mary queen of Scots was beheaded in the hall of the castle, after a confinement of more than eighteen years.



DESTRUCTION OF THE SPANISH ARMADA.

IN 1588, the Spanish Armada, consisting of a hundred and thirty great vessels, with twenty thousand land forces on board, set sail against England, while thirty-four thousand more land forces prepared to join from the Netherlands. Amidst the consternation which prevailed in England, active measures were taken to defend the country; thirty vessels prepared to meet the Armada, and another fleet endeavoured to block up the Netherlands forces in port. The command was taken by Lord Howard of Effingham. Troops were also mustered on land to repel the invaders. The English fleet attacked the Armada in the channel, and was

found to have a considerable advantage in the lightness and manageableness of the vessels. As the Armada sailed along, it was infested by the English in the rear, and, by a series of desultory attacks, so damaged as to be obliged to take refuge on the coast of Zealand. The duke of Parma now declined to embark the Netherlands forces, and it was resolved by the admiral that they should return to Spain by sailing round the Orkneys, as the winds were contrary to their passage directly back. Accordingly, they proceeded northward, and were followed by the English fleet as far as Flamborough head, where they were terribly shattered by a storm. Seventeen of the ships, having 5000 men on board, were cast away on the Western Isles and the coast of Ireland. Of the whole Armada, fifty-three ships only returned to Spain, and these in a wretched condition. The seamen, as well as the soldiers who remained, were so overcome with hardships and fatigue, and so dispirited by their discomfiture, that they filled all Spain with accounts of the desperate valour of the English, and of the tempestuous violence of that ocean by which they were surrounded.







DEATH OF THE EARL OF ESSEX.

DEATH OF QUEEN ELIZABETH.



It is remarkable, that while Elizabeth increased in power and resources, she became more noted for feminine weaknesses. In her early years she had shown a stoicism and a superiority to natural affections not usually observed in women. But in her old age, she became both volatile and susceptible to an extraordinary degree; so that the hand which she had withheld, in her younger days, from the noblest princes of Europe, seemed likely to be bestowed, in her old age, upon some mere court minion. Her favourite in middle life was Robert, earl of Leicester, a profligate and a trifler. In her latter days she listened to the addresses of the earl of Essex, a young man of greater courage and better principle, but also headstrong and weak. Essex, who had acquired popularity by several brilliant military enterprises, began at length to assume an insolent superiority over the queen, who was on one occasion so much provoked by his rudeness as to give him a hearty box on the ear. Notwithstanding all his caprices and insults, the queen still dotingly forgave him, until he at length attempted to raise an insurrection against her in the streets of London, when he was seized, condemned, and after much hesitation executed, (February 25, 1601.)

Elizabeth, in at last ordering the execution of Essex, had acted upon her usual principle of sacrificing her feelings to what was necessary for the public cause; but in this effort, made in the sixty-eighth year of her age, she had miscalculated the real strength of her nature. She was seen from that time to decline gradually in health and spirits.

About the close of 1601, she fell into a deep hypochondria or melancholy. She could scarcely be induced to have herself

dressed, and at length became so much absorbed by her sorrow as to refuse sustenance, and sat for days and nights on the floor, supported by a few cushions brought to her by her attendants. On the 24th of March, 1603, she expired, after a reign of nearly forty-five years, during which England advanced from the condition of a second-rate to that of a first-rate power, and the Protestant religion was established on a basis from which it could never afterwards be shaken.





COMMENCEMENT OF THE CIVIL WAR IN FRANCE.



RANCIS I. died on the 31st of March, 1547, and was succeeded by his son, Henry II., who was married to the Italian princess, Catherine de Medicis, so conspicuous in French history. His reign was chiefly signalized by the battle of St. Quentin, fought May 10, 1557, in which the French sustained from the Spaniards the greatest defeat they had suffered since the days of Cressy and Poitiers; and the capture of Calais from the English, which was effected by the duke of Guise, Jan. 8, 1558. Henry II. was accidentally killed by the Count de Montgomeri, at a tournament, June 29, 1559. His successor, Francis II., who married Mary queen of Scots, reigned but one year and five months. To counteract the ascendancy of the Guise family, and to gain religious liberty, the Huguenots, under the direction of the Prince of Condé and the king of Navarre, formed the famous conspiracy of Amboise, which was discovered, and the princes seized and imprisoned. Condé was condemned

to die, but his life was saved by the death of Francis. Catherine de Medicis, wishing to oppose their influence to that of the Guise's, spared and liberated them.

Francis II. was succeeded by Charles IX., (A. D. 1560,) in whose reign the civil wars between the Huguenots and Catholics raged almost incessantly. The events of the late king's short reign had tended to place the affairs of the country in even a worse condition than they were in at the death of Henry II. The evils of faction were severely felt, and the violence of religious differences was increased.

It was in vain that the chancellor l'Hôpital, in a speech on the opening of the first assembly of the states in the new reign, exhorted to patriotism and religious toleration. These virtues were at that time but little known in France. Catherine and the duke of Guise were solely intent on the possession of power. The duke, although he could not pretend to rule the present king, as he had ruled his brother, was yet very unwilling to give up the authority which he had been of late accustomed to exercise. To strengthen his hands, he entered into a close confederacy with the constable Montmorenci. The maréchal St. André was another member of this confederacy, which was called the triumvirate. The prince of Condé regained his liberty on the late king's death, and placed himself at the head of the Huguenots. His brother, the king of Navarre, soon after deserted the Huguenots, and went over to the party of the triumvirs.

Catherine, to balance the power of this confederacy, and believing that the grand secret of politics was to govern all parties by dividing them against each other, now affected to entertain a great regard for the Huguenots, and granted them several privileges. But these concessions to the Huguenots only added strength to the triumvirate; for the Catholics, becoming alarmed, and believing their own church in danger, relied for protection chiefly on the princes of Lorraine. The two parties became every day more inflamed, and mutual insults, and retaliations took place. A civil war was ready to burst forth, and nothing was wanting but a pretext to begin.

It was not long before this was found. Several Huguenots, while at their devotions in a barn at Vassy, were insulted by the servants of the duke of Guise, who was travelling through

the place. An affray ensued, in which the duke, while endeavouring to quell the tumult, received a blow in the face from a stone. His servants, exasperated at seeing their master thus wounded, attacked the Huguenots, and killed several of them. The Huguenots interpreted the massacre of these peasants as a premeditated commencement of hostilities, and as a signal to arm. The prince of Condé seized on the town of Orleans, and there established the chief seat of his party, and published a manifesto calling on all good Protestants to assist him in the common cause. The Huguenots possessed themselves also of many other towns in different parts of the kingdom. They applied for assistance to the English queen, and put the town of Havre into her hands, as a requital for the succours which she engaged to send them. This was the commencement of those dreadful religious wars, to which all France was to become a prey for many years; wars which were carried on with the greatest animosity, tearing asunder all family and social ties, and exposing the wretched inhabitants to all the horrors of fire and of the sword. Mezerai says, "If any one were to relate all that passed at this time in different parts of France, all the taking and retaking of towns,—the infinity of little combats,—the furies,—the massacres, it would take up a great many volumes." We pass over all but the leading events.

In 1562, Rouen, which was in possession of the Huguenots, was besieged by the Catholics. During this siege, the king of Navarre received a wound, of which he soon after died, at Andelys, in his way to Paris. When he found himself dying, he sent an express to his queen, exhorting her to keep on her guard, and on no account to trust herself at court.

The garrison of Rouen was commanded by the count de Montgomeri. He defended the town with great spirit, but it was at last taken by assault, and was given up to pillage. When Rouen was taken, Montgomeri saved himself from falling into the enemy's hands by hurrying on board a galley. He promised liberty to the crew if they got him off. The crew rowed so vigorously that they broke through the chains which were placed across the Seine at Caudebec, and landed him in safety at Havre.



CHARLES IX.

BATTLE OF DREUX, SIEGE OF ORLEANS, AND BATTLE OF ST. DENIS.



IN the same year, a battle was fought at Dreux, in Normandy. At the first onset, St. André was killed, and Montmorenci was taken prisoner. Some persons who fled hastened to Paris with the intelligence that the Catholics were overthrown. The queen, who perhaps thought that the victory of the Huguenots was more to her advantage than any event which might increase the power of the house of Guise, only observed, with the utmost levity, "*Hé bien*) we must now say our prayers in French." But the fortune of the battle had in the mean time changed. The prince of Condé was taken prisoner, and Coligny, who then took the command of the Huguenots, was obliged to

retire from the field. Condé was immediately conveyed to the tent of the duke of Guise, who, seeming to forget that any causes of animosity had subsisted between them, received him more as a guest than as a prisoner, and as a mark of his confidence and friendship, made him sleep in the same bed with himself. Condé afterwards declared that Guise slept as soundly as if his best friend, instead of his greatest enemy, was lying by his side; but that, as for himself, he had not closed his eyes all night.

In February, 1563, the Catholic army, under the command of the duke of Guise, laid siege to Orleans. The town was on the point of being taken, when one evening, as the duke was returning to the camp from a visit to his family, he received a mortal wound in the shoulder by a pistol-shot, fired at him by a man named Poltrot. The duke instantly fell, and the assassin, putting spurs to his horse, galloped off. After having ridden full speed the whole of the night, which was extremely dark, Poltrot supposed himself to be many miles from Orleans. But when daylight broke, he found himself only about a mile from the spot from which he had first set out. His horse was unable to go a step farther, and he was constrained to seek shelter in a house, where, throwing himself on a bed, he soon fell asleep. In this state he was discovered, and being put to the torture, he accused several persons of having been his instigators, and amongst others, the admiral Coligny. Coligny protested his innocence, and demanded to be confronted with his accuser; but this favour was denied him. Poltrot was put to death with savage cruelty. Guise lived only six days after his wound; but before he died, he exhorted Catherine to make peace with the Huguenots. He left three sons, Henry, who succeeded him in his dukedom, the cardinal de Guise, and Charles, duc de Mayenne. He had one daughter, married to the duc de Montpensier. The queen, in compliance with the dying advice of the duke of Guise, made peace with the Huguenots, and granted them very favourable conditions. These conditions were never fulfilled, but hostilities did not break out again for above four years.

Catherine made use of this interval to conduct the king on a royal progress to different parts of his kingdom, with a view to ascertain, if possible, the real strength of the Huguenots. At Bayonne, the royal party was met by Elizabeth, or, as she was

called by the Spaniards, Isabella, queen of Spain, to whom Philip II. allowed the indulgence of a visit to her mother and brother. She was escorted by the duke of Alva, Philip's proud and cruel minister; and Catherine, who often concealed under the cloak of festivities the most bloody and relentless purposes, is believed to have held with him secret conferences, which had for their object the extirpation of the Protestants. But with all Catherine's art, she could not avert the suspicion which justly attached both to her measures and her character. The Protestants had long observed that, though she had often made them flattering promises, yet these promises were never performed. Perpetual outrages were committed by the Catholics both on their persons and their property. The duke of Alva, after the meeting at Bayonne, was appointed to the command of a numerous army in the Low Countries, now in a state of revolt against Philip's authority. He was the known enemy of their religion: he might easily enter France and further the designs of the queen-mother against them.

Thus goaded by past, and apprehensive of future injuries, the Huguenots flew to arms in 1567. Their first enterprise was an unsuccessful attempt to possess themselves of the person of the young king, who was then at Meaux. They next proceeded to Paris, which they held in blockade during eight days. The constable Montmorenci had the command of the city; and the Parisians, impatient under the restraints of a blockade, obliged him, contrary to his judgment, to march out and attack the enemy, who were exceedingly inferior in numbers. The two armies encountered in the plain of St. Denis, and the Huguenots were worsted; but the victory was dearly bought by the death of the constable, who, although in the 75th year of his age, fought with the courage and activity of youth. Even when at last he fell covered with wounds, he had so much vigour left, that, by a blow with the pommel of his sword, he beat out some of the teeth and broke the jawbone of Robert Stuart, a Scotsman, who had given him his last and mortal wound.



THE DUKE OF ALVA





BATTLES OF JARNAC AND MONTCONTOUR.



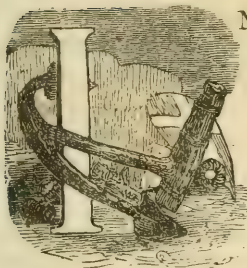
AFTER the battle of St. Denis, a peace was patched up with the Huguenots, but it was ill kept, and in a few months the war broke out more furiously than ever. On March 13, 1569, the two parties met on the banks of the river Charente, near the town of Jarnac. The royal army was nearly four times stronger than that of the adversary. Condé entered the field of battle with his arm in a sling, from the effects of a former wound. Before the engagement commenced, a kick from a restive horse broke his leg ; but, undaunted by this accident, he made a short and animated harangue to his soldiers, and rushed forward against the enemy. The Huguenots fought with desperate courage, but, overpowered by superior numbers, were at length obliged to fly. Condé, as you may well suppose, was now unable to move, and was compelled to allow himself to be taken prisoner. He was lifted from his horse, and placed on the ground, under the shade of a tree. Here one of the captains of the duke of Anjou's guard basely came behind him, and shot him dead. He left three young sons, Henry, who succeeded as prince of Condé, the count of Soissons, and the prince of Conti.

Henry, prince of Bearn, now about sixteen years of age, the

son of Anthony, late king of Navarre, was, on Condé's death, declared the head of the Protestants; but, on account of his youth, the command of their forces was given to Coligny. Rochelle was at this time one of their chief bulwarks, and here the queen of Navarre resided with her family, together with many of the principal leaders of the Huguenot cause.

In the following October, the Catholics obtained another victory at Montcontour; but their opponents, though often beaten, were far from being subdued. In 1570, Coligny transferred the war into Burgundy, where he obtained the advantage. Peace was again made, and Coligny was sent for to court. He went reluctantly, and with hesitation, but the apparently cordial and sincere manner of the king soon effaced all unpleasant suspicions and lulled him into security. Some authors say, and we may, I hope, incline to believe them, that Charles was really sincere, and actually meant at the time to fulfil his professions. But the common notion is, that the whole of the shocking perfidy which I have here to relate, was a deep laid plot of his and his mother's contriving. Catherine, to calm the suspicions of the Protestants, proposed and concluded a marriage between the prince of Bearn and her daughter Margaret. The queen of Navarre was invited to Paris to be present at the nuptials. It would, perhaps, have been better for her if she had adhered to her husband's injunctions, and had not ventured to court. She, however, came, and was apparently received by Charles with the open-hearted affection due to a relative; but it is said, that when their interview was over, he boasted to his mother "how well he had acted his part." The pope had opposed with all his power the marriage of Margaret with a Huguenot prince; but it is said that Charles assured the pope's legate of his own entire devotion to the holy see, and, pressing his hand, added these remarkable words: *O! s'il m'étoit permis de m'expliquer d'avantage.*

MASSACRE OF ST. BARTHOLOMEW.



N the midst of the preparations for the marriage of the young prince and princess, the queen of Navarre died suddenly. Her death is now generally attributed to some constitutional disease; but at the time the Protestants naturally took alarm at it, and many of them believed it to have been procured by means of a poisoned pair of

gloves, which she had purchased of Catherine's Italian perfumer. The marriage of Henry, now by his mother's death king of Navarre, with Margaret of Valois, took place August 18, 1572. It is said that the bride was extremely averse to it; that the being united to a Huguenot filled her with repugnance and horror; and that her affections had been previously fixed on the duke of Guise. But Catherine was not accustomed to let the feelings of others stand in the way of her own schemes.

The court was now, to all appearance, fully occupied with banquets, masquerades, and other splendid entertainments. The Huguenots were treated with the greatest attention. The inhabitants of Rochelle repeatedly sent entreaties to Coligny to quit Paris, and "not trust himself in the power of a king whose passions were uncontrollable, and of an Italian woman whose dissimulation was unfathomable." But Coligny would not hearken to their cautions, and declared himself ready to abide all hazards rather than show a distrust which might plunge the country again into a civil war.

On August 22, as Coligny was returning from the Louvre to his hotel, and walking slowly, perusing some papers, he was fired at by a man stationed behind a grated window. He was wounded in two places, but it was thought not dangerously. On being conveyed home, he was instantly surrounded by the

alarmed and agitated Huguenots. It was discovered that the assassin was a servant of the duke of Guise, and that he had been stationed for two days behind the window to wait for his victim. The king and Catherine, on hearing of this outrage, visited Coligny in his bed-chamber, expressed the greatest concern at the accident, and sent him a guard of their own soldiers, as if for his protection. They professed great anxiety lest the Parisians should commit any act of hostility against the Protestants: they gave orders to close all the city gates except two, under colour of preventing the escape of the assassin; and had an account laid before them of the names and places of abode of all the Huguenots in Paris, on the pretence of taking them under their immediate protection. Every thing remained quiet during two days. It was like the calm before a thunder-storm.

The transactions of the bloody day of St. Bartholomew are involved in great obscurity. Some assert that the massacre had been planned two years before it was executed. Others, that the death of Coligny alone was the main object of Catherine's machinations, and that the slaughter which followed was an after-thought on the part of the court, and resorted to as an act of self-defence against the Huguenots, who might be expected to revenge the death of the admiral. On Saturday, August the 23d, it was finally determined that the massacre should begin that night, and that the signal should be the striking of the tocsin, or great bell of the palace. The Swiss guards and the city militia were ordered to be in readiness, wearing a white cross on their hats, and a scarf on their left arms.

As the hour approached, the king, less hardened than his mother, was in the greatest agitation: he trembled from head to foot, and the perspiration ran down his forehead. His mother and the duke of Anjou had great difficulty in keeping him steady to his purpose. The queen at length forced a command from him to commence the slaughter, and then, to prevent the possibility of his retracting, she hastened, as it is said, the fatal signal, which was given at half-past one o'clock in the morning by the great bell of the palace. On the first sound, the implacable Guise flew to the house of Coligny, and there completed his bloody purpose; not indeed by his own hands, for he remained below and sent up his people to the admiral's



COLIGNY.

chamber. The venerable old man, disabled by his late wounds, had no other defence than his calm, intrepid countenance. La Besme, a German servant of the duke of Guise, approached him with his drawn sword in his hand. "Young man," said Coligny, "you ought to reverence these gray hairs; but do what you think proper; my life can be shortened but a very little." La Besme made no answer, but plunged the sword into the admiral's body, while the other assassins despatched him with their daggers: they then threw the body out of the window. The head was cut off and carried as a trophy to the queen, who, it is said, caused it to be embalmed, and sent it as a present to the pope. The headless trunk was dragged about the streets by the frantic mob, who afterwards hung it on a gibbet at Montfauçon, where it remained some days scorched, though not consumed, by a fire which was lighted under it. The king and his mother came to view it. At last, it was secretly conveyed away by orders of the *maréchal* Montmorenci, who gave it honourable burial in his chapel at Chantilly.

I must now return to the other events of this horrid massacre. When morning dawned, the king, who had got rid of his tremors, called for his long fowling-piece, and placed himself at one of the windows of the palace which looked on the Seine, and employed himself in firing on the wretched Huguenots, who were endeavouring to secure themselves by crossing the river. He continually exclaimed, as he aimed at the fugitives, *Tue, tue, tirs : mon Dieu ! ils s'enfuient.*

Henry of Navarre, and the young prince of Condé, and several other Huguenots, were, by the king's particular desire, lodged in the Louvre. All were sacrificed with the exception of the two princes. The queen-mother even looked from her window at the slaughtered bodies as they were brought out and thrown into the court of the palace. In the city, also, the work of death was going on with equal ferocity, and did not entirely cease during seven days. More than five thousand persons of all ranks are supposed to have perished in Paris alone. Some few had been so fortunate as to save themselves by flight at the first alarm. Others were preserved by the humanity of some of the Catholics. The *maréchal* Biron, who was in the post of master of the artillery, gave to some a secure refuge at the arsenal; and the duke of Guise himself gave protection in his

own house to many whom he was desirous to attach to his service. One poor boy saved his life by concealing himself under the murdered bodies of his father and brother, and afterwards lived to be a *maréchal* of France. The massacre was not confined to Paris ; orders were also sent into the provinces to put the Huguenots to the sword. In many places these orders were too well obeyed, but not in all. The governor of Bayonne, we are told, in answer to the king's mandate, wrote as follows : " Your majesty has many faithful servants in Bayonne, but not one executioner."

The court for a time exulted in its victory. Charles was heard to declare, that now he had got rid of the rebels, he should live in *peace*. Alas ! he had murdered for ever all his own peace. His and Catherine's punishment soon began. Instead of living in peace, they were a prey to constant disquietude. At one time the king denied all participation in the massacre, and threw the whole blame of it on the duke of Guise. The very next day he avowed the deed publicly, and gloried in it, and had a solemn mass performed to celebrate what he called the *victory* over the Protestants, and had medals struck in commemoration of it.

The authors of the massacre, to throw the more odium on the Protestants, and, as they hoped, to justify themselves, pretended that Coligny had formed a plot to kill the king. They instituted a mock trial against him for treason : they sentenced him to be hung in effigy : they commanded every portrait of him to be destroyed and trampled on by the common hangman. His property was confiscated, his house at Chatillon levelled with the ground, and his children degraded from their rank. To give more colour to this imaginary plot, they accused two innocent men as being accessory to it, and caused them to be hung on the same gibbet, from which was suspended also the effigy of the admiral.

Condé and the king of Navarre were for a time kept prisoners in the Louvre. Both persuasions and threats were resorted to, to make them renounce the Protestant principles ; and at last these princes, young, without friends and advisers, and overcome with grief, dismay, and horror at the scenes which were passing around them, yielded to the pressure of their circumstances, and consented to profess themselves Catholics ; but they retracted

this profession as soon as they had regained their liberty. The natural consequence of these shocking transactions was, that Charles and Catherine were universally held up to execration, excepting, indeed, in the courts of Madrid and Rome. In the latter a jubilee was proclaimed by Gregory XIII. to celebrate what he termed "the triumph over heresy."

The Huguenots, who were at first paralyzed with horror, soon regained their activity and flew to arms, and their persecutors found that, instead of extirpating heresy, they had made the heretics desperate. Rochelle was besieged by the royal army, but was defended with so much vigour during a protracted siege, that the duke of Anjou, who commanded the assailants, found it expedient to negotiate. A treaty, bearing date July 6, 1573, was concluded with the whole of the Huguenot party.

Charles IX. died soon after the massacre of St. Bartholomew, a prey to remorse. His death is thus described by Markham:

"The king's health now rapidly declined, and he was visibly hastening to the grave. He had never been quite himself since the day of St. Bartholomew. His complexion, which before was pale, was now often flushed; his eyes acquired an unnatural fierceness, his nights were restless and disturbed, and his sleep unrefreshing. As his disorder increased, every symptom was aggravated. He was seldom still for an instant. His limbs would at one moment be distorted by convulsive twitches, and the next so stiff that he could not bend them; and the blood would ooze from the pores of his skin. His physicians, unable to comprehend his disorder, affirmed that it was the effect of poison, or of sorcery. Nor was his mind less agitated than his bodily frame. The recollection of the massacre continually haunted him, and he was frequently overheard bewailing his crime with bitter tears and groans. Catherine, who thought more of securing her own power than of his sufferings, disturbed his dying moments by making him give her a commission of regency for the interval which must ensue between his death and the return of his brother the king of Poland into France."



HENRY III.

FORMATION OF THE CATHOLIC LEAGUE.



THE death of Charles IX. without heirs gave the throne of France to Henry III., the favourite son of Catherine de Medici. He had acted with his mother in many of her political schemes, and particularly in her measures against the Huguenot party. But, in his progress to Poland, he had occasion to notice the strong disapprobation with which the massacre of St. Bartholomew was regarded by the nations of Europe of all creeds; and he never after, amid many crimes and follies, showed himself a persecutor. On learning the news of his brother's death, fearing to be detained by the Polish nobles, he abandoned his kingdom secretly: some of the nobility followed him beyond the boundaries, and to them he gave an indefinite promise of returning at some future period, which he had no intention to perform. The Poles,

eventually elected another king, and Henry and his former subjects seemed speedily to have forgotten the existence of each other.

In his earlier years, Henry had shown some traits of a manly and energetic spirit, but all traces of it seemed to have disappeared at his accession. He showed from the very beginning a dislike of serious occupations, a devotion to trifles and debauchery, and a total abandonment of all the cares of government to his mother and his favourites. Catherine encouraged these dispositions, which allowed her to gratify her insatiable thirst of dominion. The two great parties by which the kingdom was divided had now acquired so much strength and consistency, that impartiality was scarcely possible; the royal council was similarly divided; the president, De Thou, treading in the steps of the chancellor De l'Hôpital, recommended that peace should be established on the basis of an amnesty for the past, and a toleration of the Protestants for the future; the partisans of the duke of Guise would be contented with nothing short of a total extirpation of heresy. The queen, as usual, endeavoured to make both parties subservient to her purposes; but her arts had been too often practised to be any longer available, and both parties prepared to recommence the war, if indeed they can be said ever to have laid it aside.

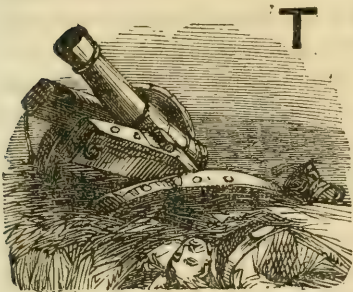
The duke of Alençon, who afterwards obtained the title of duke of Anjou, and the king of Navarre, had been restored to liberty by Henry immediately after his arrival in France; but finding themselves exposed to suspicion, and deprived of all interest in the state, they quitted the court to place themselves at the head of the politicians and the Protestants. The war was distinguished by no great exploit on either side, and was terminated by a peace, in which more favourable conditions were granted to the Huguenots than they had hitherto obtained. (A. D. 1576.) A portion of the Catholics, headed by the Duke of Guise, protested against this treaty, which they deemed subversive of the established religion, and entered into an alliance called the *Holy League*, in defence of their own views of the Catholic religion. The formation of this association, whatever may be said in its defence, was certainly a very unfortunate circumstance for the kingdom, as it led directly to a renewal of the civil war with greater violence than ever. Henry III.,

aware of the danger to his throne which would arise from the existence of a powerful combination acting independently of royal dictation, by what seems a justifiable stroke of policy, declared himself the head of the League, and gave his sanction to their measures. It is not to be forgotten, when we look back upon transactions of this nature, that leagues and associations, avowedly religious, are often mere political combinations, and that neither the Catholic religion nor any other religion is to be held responsible for all the acts of politicians who may think proper to give religious titles to their parties. In the age of which we are now writing, violence and persecution were practised by all parties; and religious freedom, as it is now understood, was a thing unheard of.



CATHERINE DE MEDICI.

ASSASSINATION OF THE DUKE OF GUISE.



THE death of the duke of Anjou, and the improbability of Henry's ever having any children, soon made the members of the league develop their real designs. (A. D. 1584.) Henry of Navarre, according to the fundamental laws of the kingdom, was the next heir to the

crown ; but as he was only related to the king in the fourteenth degree, and was besides a Protestant, Catherine and the duke of Guise severally laboured to prevent his succession. Catherine resolved, in defiance of the Salic law, to procure the crown for the descendants of her favourite daughter, the duchess of Lorraine ; the duke of Guise, with duplicity equal to her own, pretended to join in her design, but strenuously laboured to procure the rich inheritance for himself. The clergy were the foremost in exciting a new war ; every pulpit resounded with declamations on the dangers of the church if the throne were possessed by a Protestant ; every confession-box became the means of secretly whispering treason into the ears of the populace ; and the press, which was almost totally in the hands of the ecclesiastics, produced daily the most inflammatory appeals to the prejudices and bigotry of the nation. In these invectives the king was not spared ; his severe edicts for raising new taxes, his lavish profusion to unworthy favourites, his disgraceful debaucheries, and the hypocritical grimace which he substituted for devotion, furnished ample scope for satire ; and it was said in addition, that he had formed a secret alliance with the king of Navarre for the protection of the Huguenots. The duke of Guise was the main-spring of all these complicated movements ; as he could not openly claim the crown for himself, he persuaded the old cardinal of Bourbon, uncle to the king of Navarre, that he was the

right heir to the crown, in consequence of his nephew's heresy. The cardinal, whom contemporary historians briefly but emphatically designate an *old fool*, was easily persuaded to assert his chimerical claim, and published a manifesto declaring himself chief of the league. Henry, however, could not be persuaded to set aside the claims of his cousin, the king of Navarre, even though that prince had refused to come near the court after he had been frequently invited, and had firmly resisted every attempt made to persuade him to change his religion.

The accession of the king of Spain to the league became the signal for renewing the war, (A. D. 1585;) the Protestants fought no longer for their privileges, but for their existence; the duke of Guise scarcely concealed his designs upon the throne, the king of France was exposed to the attacks of both factions, and was in equal danger from the success of either. This is generally called the war of the three Henrys, viz. the king of France, the king of Navarre, and the duke of Guise. The most extraordinary of all the matters connected with this tedious conflict was the conduct of the pope; though the league was professedly intended to exalt the power of the holy see, Sextus V. looked upon it as a rebellious alliance, equally dangerous to the interests of royalty and religion. Possessed of as proud and ambitious a spirit as any pontiff that had ever held the papal throne, he revered in others any manifestations of that courage and vigour which formed so conspicuous a part of his own character. He excommunicated Henry of Navarre and Queen Elizabeth; the former made a spirited appeal to a general council, and had his defiance posted on the gates of the Vatican; Elizabeth excommunicated the pope in her turn. When Sextus heard of those instances of intrepidity, he declared, that, though heretics, these were the only sovereigns in Europe that deserved to wear a crown.

But whatever may have been the private sentiments of the pope, his bull afforded a pretext to the leaguers, of which the duke of Guise was not slow in availing himself. The leaders of the sixteen departments into which Paris was divided, the entire mob of that city, all the clergy, regular and secular, were on his side; and the deposition of Henry III. was an object openly avowed by his partisans. The duke's brother, the cardinal of Guise, declared publicly that the king should be sent into a

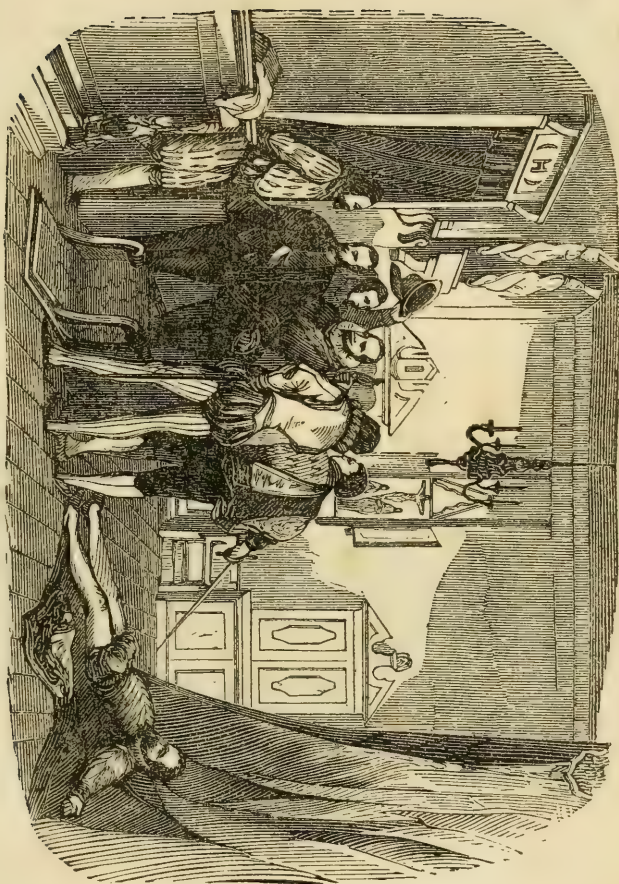
monastery: his sister the duchess of Montpensier, whom Henry had insulted by some remarks on her want of personal beauty, exhibited the scissors which were to give him the clerical tonsure.

Henry of Navarre began now to show some proofs of those noble qualities, which have since deservedly procured for him the title of *Great*. The weakness and indecision of his father had shaken the confidence of the Protestants in the house of Bourbon; but his mother had redeemed the errors of her husband; she was adored by her subjects, with whom she loved to reside, far from the intrigues and vices of the court. In the remote and wild districts of Bearne, Henry received the education of a hardy mountaineer, and was early taught to encounter difficulties and dangers. When brought to court, he was not proof against the seductive arts by which Catherine de Medicis endeavoured to bring him over to her party. Indifferent as to the means by which her ends were accomplished, Catherine laboured with some success to lead the young prince into habits of debauchery, in order that she might rule his actions by means of the artful mistresses with which she had supplied him. But the impending dangers of the league woke him from his dream of guilty pleasure; he placed himself at the head of the Protestant party when its fortunes were at the lowest ebb; often defeated but never conquered, he maintained his ground amidst the violence of enemies and the insincerity of friends, until he finally triumphed, as much by the admiration inspired by his moral character as by the terror of his arms.

Catherine made some ineffectual efforts to prevent this war by negotiation, (A. D. 1587,) but being distrusted by both parties, she completely failed. The royal army, under the duke of Joyeuse, an unworthy favourite of Henry's, was totally defeated at Contras by the king of Navarre. On the other hand, the duke of Guise cut to pieces an army of Germans, who had invaded France to make a diversion in favour of the Huguenots. The populace of Paris were so intoxicated with joy at the news of the victory obtained by their idol, that Henry, who had appeared for some time to have resigned all care of the state, was roused from his lethargy by the imminent peril that threatened his crown and life. He sent an express to Guise, forbidding him to approach Paris; but the duke, pretending not to have received the royal mandate, hastened his

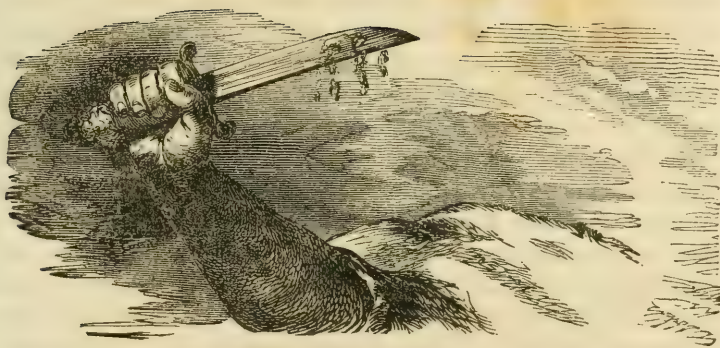
approach to the city, and was received there with all the honours of a triumph. (A. D. 1588.) In order to reduce the power of the *Sixteen*, Henry introduced a body of his Swiss guards into Paris, but the citizens, instigated by the partisans of Guise, immediately took up arms; the shops were shut, the alarm bells rung, barricades and chains were drawn across the streets, and the soldiers driven back from post to post, until the king found himself and his attendants closely penned up in the Louvre. Henry escaped during the night, leaving the duke of Guise in full possession of the capital, but Catherine remained behind to exert her arts of intrigue in bringing about an accommodation. A treaty was concluded, which neither party intended to observe, and in consequence of one of its stipulations, an assembly of the states was ordered to be held at Blois. The debates and votes in this assembly sufficiently showed the dangerous designs entertained by the duke of Guise, and the great resources that he possessed for their accomplishment. To proceed against him for high treason would have been absurd, when all the states of the realm were in his favour; open war would certainly terminate in the king's defeat; nothing then remained but the detestable means of assassination, and this Henry determined to adopt. A letter from pope Sextus greatly contributed to confirm his resolution; his holiness advised the king "to render himself master of his rebellious subjects by any means in his power." Having armed nine of his most trusty followers with daggers, Henry sent to invite the duke of Guise to a speedy conference on matters of the utmost importance. The duke hastened to obey; but just as he was about to enter the room in which the king was, the assassins fell on him altogether, and he was instantly slain. His brother, the cardinal, shared the same fate on the following day. Thus fell, in the prime of life, two men whom nature had endowed with abilities that might have made them the brightest ornaments of France, but which bigotry and ambition had rendered useless to themselves and pernicious to the nation.

Henry proceeded from the scene of blood to his mother's apartments, and, announcing to her the news, said, "Now, madam, I am indeed a king;" she heard the account with the utmost indifference, but advised him to take advantage of the confusion which the event would cause in the league, and secure

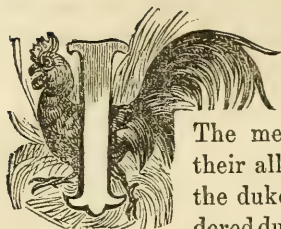


ASSASSINATION OF THE DUKE OF GUISE.

Paris. But Henry, believing all danger removed by the death of his greatest enemy, relapsed into his ordinary indolence. Soon after, Catherine, overwhelmed with sorrow at the disappointment of all her schemes, and broken down by witnessing the ruin which her profligate ambition had brought on her children, felt herself sinking into an unhonoured grave. Her last advice to Henry was to establish liberty of conscience, and to enter into close alliance with Henry of Navarre. She died unlamented and almost forgotten: the dissolution of one who had played so prominent a part was regarded everywhere as an ordinary incident of trifling importance.

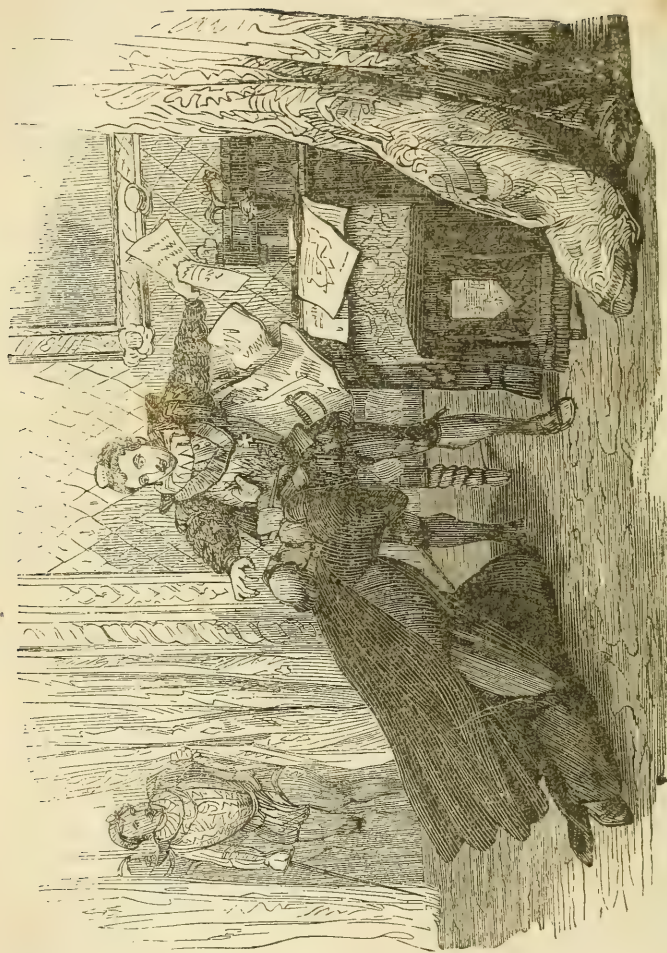


ASSASSINATION OF HENRY III.



INSTEAD of "finding himself indeed a king," Henry, in consequence of his crime, was on the brink of ruin. The members of the league openly threw off their allegiance, and choosing as their leader the duke de Mayenne, the brother of the murdered duke, gave him the pompous title of "lieutenant-general of the royal state and crown of France," which was in fact giving him the authority of a sovereign without the name. Most of the provinces and large cities of France declared in favour of the league, and Henry saw no hopes of preserving his authority unless he obtained the assistance of his cousin of Navarre. That prince suspected the king's sincerity, for once unjustly, and remembered too well the share that Henry had taken in the massacre of St. Bartholomew to trust him too readily. But their natural necessities compelled both to bury their former animosities in oblivion; the two Henrys had an interview at the castle of Plessis les Tours, and entered into a close alliance which was never afterwards violated. (A. D. 1589.) Henry III. was now superior to his enemies; he advanced to Paris and laid close siege to the city; the inhabitants were unprepared for his attacks—they had but a small stock of provisions and an inadequate garrison; the duke de Mayenne was unable to collect an army for their relief; every thing seemed to promise a speedy surrender, when an unexpected event produced a new and total revolution.

A monk, named James Clement, was persuaded by his own fanaticism, aided by the artful suggestions of some of the leaguers, that he would perform a meritorious action by killing a monarch who was an enemy to the church. For this purpose he resolved to go on to St. Cloud, where the king resided, and



ASSASSINATION OF HENRY III.

under the pretence of giving him a letter, stab him in the midst of his guards. Never did an assassin display so much intrepidity; on his road he met La Guesle and his brother, who were going to join the royal army; he was by them conveyed to the camp, and spent the night of his arrival in their tent. He supped gayly with La Guesle's followers, retorted with considerable humour the jokes passed on his monkish habit, readily answered every question put to him, and, after leaving the table, spent the night in a profound sleep. On the following morning he was introduced to the king, and presented his letters; while Henry was engaged in looking at them, Clement stabbed him with a knife which he had concealed in his sleeve; the king immediately called out that he was murdered, and, drawing out the knife from the wound, struck the assassin in the face; at the same time the attendants despatched him with their swords. The death of Clement prevented any discovery of those by whom he had been instigated to the atrocious deed: but it appears very probable that the family of Lorraine were those who had most share in the contrivance, in revenge for the murder of the duke of Guise. When Henry found that his wound was mortal, he prepared for death with much apparent resignation. He took an affectionate farewell of the king of Navarre, whom he declared his successor, after having strenuously exhorted him to conciliate his future subjects by embracing the Catholic religion. Having then confessed himself with much apparent devotion, he expired in the 38th year of his age and the 15th of his reign. With him ended the house of Valois, which had held the throne of France for 261 years. During their dynasty, the several independent principalities into which Gaul had been so long divided were consolidated into the single compact kingdom of France; but this advantage was more than counterbalanced by the establishment of arbitrary principles of government, and the continual weakening of the influence previously possessed by the assemblies of the states.

The news of the assassination of Henry III. had been received at Paris with odious joy. It was celebrated by bonfires and other marks of rejoicing. The duchess of Montpensier got into a carriage with her mother, and passing through the streets, called out to the people, from time to time, "Good

news! good news!" The pulpits resounded with eulogies on the glorious martyr, James Clement. Crowds ran to see his mother, a poor rustic, whom the duchess of Montpensier had brought to Paris; and the sixteen, in their harangues, applied to her these words of Scripture, "Happy is the womb which has borne thee, and blessed are the breasts which have given thee milk." The Parisians, however, demanded a king. Mayenne not daring to take the crown himself, because he knew the people, as well as the king of Spain, were opposed to his wishes, caused the old cardinal de Bourbon to be proclaimed, under the name of Charles X. "He was," says L'Etoile, "the true king of the theatre and of painting," and was, at that time, the prisoner of Henry IV. For himself, Mayenne was content to bear the title of lieutenant-general of the kingdom, which, in fact, placed in his hands all the power of the state. He then invited the parliament, the provinces, and the nobility to deliver their king from captivity, and to stand forward in defence of their religion. At the same time, he established a secret understanding with the royal army, and endeavoured to gain over both the officers and soldiers.

As with Henry III. the race of Valois, by the deed of Clement, was extinguished, the direct line of the Capets ceased by the death of the three brothers without male issue. The next heir to the throne was Henry de Bourbon, king of Navarre, related to the late king in the twenty-second degree; but the name which he bore as a Huguenot was, in the opinion of many, enough to exclude him for ever from the throne. The Catholics, who would have deemed it a crime to conspire against Henry III., their legitimate king, scrupled not to repulse Henry IV. altogether, or, at all events, till he should have re-entered the bosom of the church. One other thought influenced them generally, or at least a great number of them; they had an idea of making him purchase their adhesion, or, perhaps of creating small sovereignties, in particular cities and provinces.





HENRY IV. AT THE BATTLE OF IVRY.

BATTLE OF IVRI.



THE death of Henry III. (A. D. 1589) relieved Paris from the imminent dangers to which it had been exposed; the title of Henry IV. was indeed acknowledged by the principal leaders of the besieging army, but his religion prevented them from warmly espousing his cause; the greater part drew off their forces, and Henry was compelled to raise the siege, which his diminished forces could no longer continue. The duke of Mayenne, who might have assumed the title of king, chose rather to proclaim the cardinal of Bourbon, though he remained a prisoner; and having collected a numerous band of leaguers, he pursued Henry on his retreat to Normandy.

Henry IV. again approached the capital; and Mayenne set out to dispute the road with him. The two armies met near Dreux, in the plain of Ivri. By daybreak of the following morning, the preparations for battle were complete; but Henry made none for retreat—"No other place of retreat," he said, "than the field of battle." The armies, on both sides, betook themselves to prayer. Henry, advancing on horseback, before his troops, armed at all points, but with head uncovered, exclaimed:—"Oh Lord! thou knowest my secret thoughts; if it be good for my people that I should reign, defend thou my cause, and prosper my arms." Then, when the acclamations which his words produced had subsided,—“My children,” he cried to his soldiers, “if you should lose sight of our standards, follow my white plume; you will find it always on the road to honour.” After these words, he gave the signal to charge; and the army of Mayenne, though far superior in point of numbers, was almost entirely destroyed. (A. D. 1590.) The conqueror marched directly upon Paris, which he invested with his troops: and, about

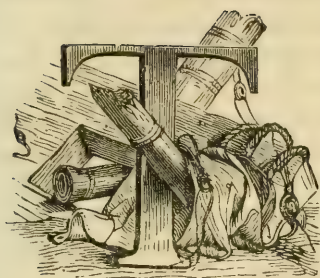
the same time, his rival and prisoner, the old cardinal de Bourbon, died. This prince had always recognised the claims of his nephew to the throne; but Henry, knowing the weakness of his character, had feared that he might become an instrument in the hands of the leaguers, if they should get possession of him.

His own followers gave the king nearly as much trouble as his enemies; the Catholic royalists detested the Huguenots; the Protestants returned the hatred, and were, besides, divided among themselves; the princes of the blood were either too young to exert any influence, or had ranged themselves under the banners of the league, and Henry found himself engaged in this dangerous war almost solely dependent on his own personal resources. The king of Spain was anxious to obtain the crown of France for his daughter, Clara Eugenia; the Protestant princes of Europe, dreading the additional power that would thus be added to the Spanish monarchy, already formidable, resolved to support the cause of Henry; the queen Elizabeth especially assisted him with money and warlike stores.



HENRY IV.

SIEGE OF PARIS.



THESE aids, and the confidence inspired by several successive triumphs, soon enabled Henry to undertake the siege of Paris, (A. D. 1590,) where the hatred of the leaguers displayed itself with more violence, in proportion as the king showed himself more worthy of affection. Though their

shadow of a king, the cardinal de Bourbon, had lately died, and they had not selected any other in his place, so far were they from thinking of submitting to their rightful sovereign, that the doctors of the Sorbonne declared that Henry, being a relapsed heretic, could not receive the crown *even though he should obtain absolution*, and this shameful decree was confirmed by the parliament. In the mean time, Paris, being closely blockaded and ill supplied with provisions, was attacked by all the horrors of a severe famine. Bread was made of bones ground into powder, food the most revolting was eagerly sought after, multitudes dropped daily dead in the street from extreme starvation, but no one spoke of yielding. The clergy had promised a crown of martyrdom to all who died in the cause of the church, and their deluded followers submitted to every privation without a murmur. Still, had Henry not been moved with a paternal pity for his frantic subjects, he might have taken Paris by assault; but when urged to give orders for the purpose, he replied —“I had rather lose Paris, than get possession of it when ruined by the death of so many persons.” He gave the fugitives from the city a safe passage through his camp, and permitted his officers and soldiers to send in refreshments to their friends. By this lenity he indeed lost the fruit of his labours for the present, but he gained the approbation of his own conscience and the

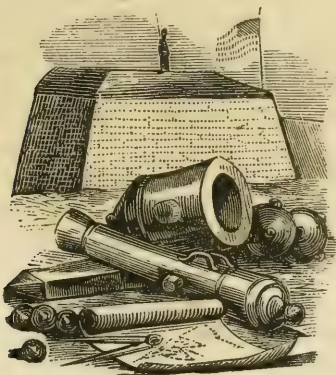
admiration of posterity. The prince of Parma, who commanded the Spanish army in Flanders, advanced to the relief of Paris when the citizens were at the very point of despair; by a series of masterly movements, he disconcerted the efforts made by Henry to bring on an engagement, relieved the garrison, and returned to continue his wars with the Dutch; after having performed this essential service to the league with scarcely the loss of a man. The following year Henry met a similar disappointment at the siege of Rouen, where the escape of the prince of Parma was effected under such difficult circumstances, that Henry could scarcely believe the evidence of his senses, when he found that the hostile troops were beyond his reach. Death soon after delivered the king from this formidable rival; the prince died in Flanders, at the age of forty-seven; his military talents and great virtues would have brought the United Provinces again under the yoke of Spain, had it been possible to find a remedy for despotism and persecution.

The conduct of the Sixteen at Paris contributed much to weaken the influence of the league; these hot-headed rebels pretended to give the law both to the duke de Mayenne and the parliament. When a man whom they wished to destroy was acquitted, they suddenly broke out into the most furious excesses, and actually hanged three of the magistrates who had been judges at the trial, among whom was Brisson, the first president of the parliament. The duke de Mayenne acted on this occasion with a promptitude and decision foreign to his character; he marched to Paris at the head of his most trusty followers, delivered the most violent of the murderers to the executioner, deprived the Sixteen of the Bastile, which had been their principal stronghold, and thus finally crushed a detestable faction, which derived its whole strength from the madness of fanaticism. But these favourable events were not sufficient to put Henry in possession of the kingdom, while he professed a religion odious to the majority of his subjects; his most faithful followers, Protestant as well as Catholic, recommended him to change his religion, and Henry only delayed through fear of offending Elizabeth and the Protestant princes of Germany. At length, finding that the states-general had proceeded so far as to offer the crown to the Spanish infanta, on condition of her marrying a French prince, Henry saw that further delay might bring ruin



SOLDIERS OF HENRY IV. GIVING PROVISIONS TO THE BESIEGED PARISIAN.

on his cause, and publicly abjured Protestantism in the church of St. Denis. (A. D. 1593.) Though this conversion was any thing but sincere, it was followed by the most beneficial effects. The nobility in general hastened to reconcile themselves to a king whose character they respected, and most of those who still held out only did so in hopes of receiving some reward for returning to their allegiance. The duke de Mayenne and some few of the more violent leaguers, however, obstinately refused to acknowledge the king, until he had received absolution from the pope; the bigoted clergy preached with their accustomed vehemence against *the man of Bearn*, as they still called their sovereign; but the efforts of some men of genius who had joined the royal cause weakened the force of their invectives. Several ingenious writings against the follies and absurdities of these ignorant bigots, especially the *Menippean satire*, covered them with such merited ridicule that they found their declamations unheeded and neglected. At length Paris opened its gates to Henry, (A. D. 1594,) and found in him not a vindictive conqueror, but a paternal sovereign.



ASSASSINATION OF HENRY IV.



E are told by Sully, that Henry meditated the formation of a *Christian republic* in Europe; it was proposed to divide Europe between fifteen sovereigns, none of whom should be permitted to make any new acquisition, but should form altogether an association for maintaining a mutual balance and preserving peace. This project was one of very questionable utility, and at all events could never be realized; his second object, to set bounds to the ambition of the house of Austria, both in Germany and Italy, was more practicable and more immediately useful. He had already made the necessary preparations for this enterprise, when the emperor, Rodolph II., furnished him with a pretence for commencing the war, by sequestrating the duchies of Cleves, Juliers, and Bergue, after the death of the last duke. Henry entered into a league with the elector of Brandenburg and the count Palatine of Neuburg, who both pretended to the succession. The Protestants of Germany, always justly suspicious of Austrian treachery, formed a new alliance for the protection of their civil and religious liberties, of which Henry was privately the contriver, and publicly the chief support. The pope, the republic of Venice, and the confederacy of the Swiss cantons, all led by separate interests, were united in the common resolution of checking the imperial power.

Never was any enterprise better concerted. Henry was to march into Germany at the head of forty thousand excellent soldiers. Sully had provided ample resources for the expenses of the army; the allies were all eager to perform their several stipulations. On the other side, the emperor was immersed in the study of astrology, and a vain search after the philosopher's stone; his only supporter, the king of Spain, was the slave of bigoted inquisitors and avaricious favourites; both were desti-



HENRY IV

tute of wisdom, confidence, and resources. Henry was impatient to join the army, but was detained much against his will, to gratify the queen with the vain ceremony of a coronation, which she insisted on with the most eager violence. During the festivities which took place on this occasion, the mind of Henry was distracted by the most gloomy forebodings, and he more than once felt that "coming events cast their shadows before," in fearful anticipations of a sudden and violent death. His apprehensions were fatally fulfilled. Passing along a street, his coach was entangled in a crowd, and a desperate fanatic, named Ravallac, took that opportunity of stabbing him. The assassin mounted on the hind wheel of the coach, and plunged a knife into the king's bosom, who was so intent on the perusal of a letter that he did not even see his murderer. The courtiers who were in the coach drew up the windows, and ordered the driver to return to the Louvre, but life was extinct before they reached the palace. Thus died, at the age of fifty-seven, a prince worthy of immortality, against whom more than fifty conspiracies were formed by his contemporaries, but whose memory has been hallowed by the admiration of posterity, and whose reign might serve as a model to all princes who love their subjects. Let us bury in oblivion a few spots which stain his private life, weaknesses which are unhappily too common to heroic minds, and honour him for the clemency which he showed to his inveterate enemies, the wisdom with which he tranquillized a land distracted by civil wars for nearly half a century, and the enlightened toleration of which he gave a bright example himself, and recommended the practice to his successors. Much of the glory, both of the public works that Henry executed, and those still greater which he had projected, undoubtedly belongs to Sully; but it is no small praise to have selected such an adviser, and to have borne with patience the reproofs which Sully frequently gave him with a boldness almost republican. The king was happy in possessing such a minister, and the minister was as happy in having such a king. The nation was still more fortunate in enjoying such a rare combination as a virtuous sovereign and a patriotic administration.

Mary de Medicis, the queen, now became regent. The first care of the regent, after having secured her own authority and the throne of her son, was to punish the assassin of the late king.

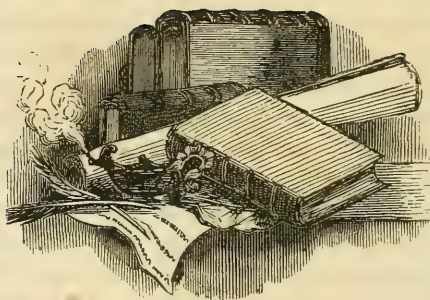
This was a duty which she owed to mankind; but humanity shudders to recall the manner in which it was fulfilled. Francis Ravailiac, beneath whose hand Henry IV. perished, seems to have been a gloomy enthusiast, who had no great or settled object to gain by becoming a regicide. It was natural to suspect that he might have accomplices. To detect them, if such were in existence, was most desirable. None, however, were discovered; but the wretched prisoner was put to the torture in order to make him disclose the names of his companions in guilt. He was first sworn; and then the dreadful engine called "the brodequin," a sort of boot, was produced. His legs being inserted in the brodequin, wedges were introduced and driven down. The most dreadful anguish was inflicted as they were tightened, and force continued to be applied till the limbs were crushed, and the sufferer fainted. While he retained his senses, a minister of religion was in constant attendance to heighten the horror of the moment, by telling the victim that the exquisite misery he then experienced was trifling in comparison with that which awaited him in the world to come, when his sinful spirit should be dismissed from this. Not merely once was this attempt made on his conscience, but repeatedly was the *question* applied. No confession, however could be wrung from him, though he was continually assured that for him there was no pardon in another state of being, unless he named those who had prompted his crime. It almost moves our admiration, to find that, thus pursued, he had the resolution to abstain from seeking a momentary respite from agony by making a false confession; but to this he could not be subdued. Other men, in the like melancholy circumstances, have been unable to resist the brutal importunities of those about them, and in their maddening throbs have breathed accusations against all they were desired to inculcate, and the guiltless have in consequence been sacrificed. In numerous instances, poor wretches have accused themselves of holding communion with the devil, and described minutely the various shapes in which, as they said, he had appeared to them, and the worship they were accustomed to offer to his infernal majesty. Bernard de Gué, it has been seen, produced to his judges, while suffering from being exposed to a fire, two bones, which had, he said, been extracted by magic from his heels; and Americ de Villiers declared to his tormentors, when tortured, that he had person-



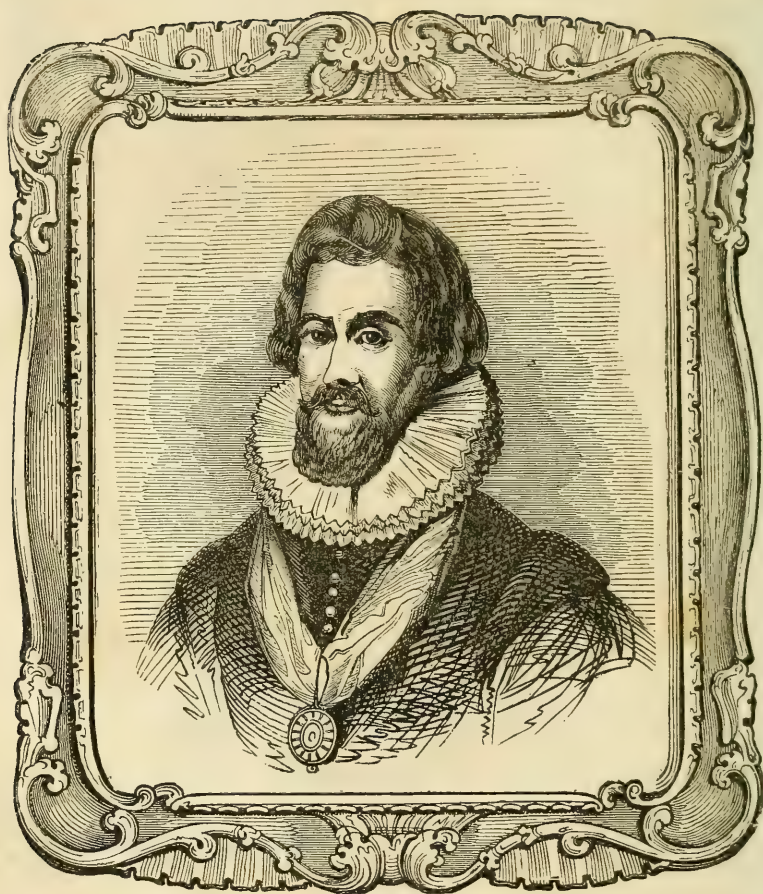
EXECUTION OF RAVAILLAC.

ally taken part in the crucifixion of the Redeemer. With equal ease might Ravallac have purchased a respite from intolerable agony, by naming innocent persons as his accomplices. To this weakness, in his greatest extremity, the unhappy victim was never brought. He was at length sentenced to a horrible death. Justice, throwing aside all moderation and dignity, proceeded with insane ferocity, not merely to destroy the unhappy culprit, but the house in which he had lived was razed to the ground; and it was ordered, that, within fifteen days after the promulgation of the sentence, his relations, who were not shown in any way to have participated in his crime, should "be banished by sound of trumpet from the kingdom, and forbidden ever to return, under pain of being hanged and strangled, without other process of law." The miserable Ravallac, no longer sustained by the enthusiasm which had carried him away in the first instance to an outrage so dreadful, now recalled the crime he had perpetrated with horror. He was carried in a cart to Nôtre Dame, there to ask pardon of the Almighty for the dreadful deed he had committed, and thence taken to the Place de Grève, where his right hand was burned from his body by sulphur, his limbs were torn with pincers, and melted lead, boiling oil, and

flaming rosin were poured on his wounds. The infliction was long protracted, and the groans and struggles of the culprit are said to have been witnessed with joy by the populace. He was finally attached to four horses, which, pulling in opposite directions, at length terminated his existence, by tearing his body to pieces. Fragments of his corpse were then seized by the excited crowd. Portions of it were preserved, but bonfires were made in several parts of Paris to consume the quarters of the criminal, which were reduced to ashes, amidst the furious execrations of the frantic multitude.







JAMES I.



ACCESSION OF JAMES I.



HE accession of the family of Stuart to the throne of England forms a memorable era in the history of Great Britain. It gave birth to a struggle between the king and parliament that repeatedly threw the whole island into convulsions, and which was never fully composed until the final expulsion of the royal family.

The English throne being left vacant by the death of Elizabeth, who with her latest breath had declared that she wished to be succeeded by her nearest kinsman, the king of Scots, or who in her dying moments had made signs to that purpose, James was immediately proclaimed king of England by the lords of the privy-council. He was great-grandson of Margaret, eldest daughter of Henry VII., so that, on the failure of the male line of the house of Tudor, his hereditary title remained unquestionable. The crown of England, therefore, passed from the family of Tudor to that of Stuart, with as much tranquillity as ever it was transmitted from father to son. People of all ranks, forgetting their ancient hostilities with Scotland, and

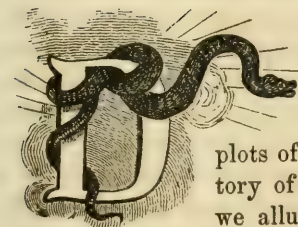
their aversion against the dominion of strangers, testified their satisfaction with louder acclamations than were usual at the accession even of their native princes. They foresaw greater advantages resulting from a perpetual alliance with Scotland, than inconveniencies from submitting to a sovereign of that kingdom. And by this junction of its whole collective force, Great Britain has risen to a degree of power and consequence in Europe, which Scotland and England, destined by their position to form one vigorous monarchy, could never have attained as separate and hostile kingdoms.





ARREST OF GUIDO FAWKES.

THE GUNPOWDER PLOT.



DURING the season of peace and tranquillity which followed James's accession, (A. D. 1605,) was brought to light one of the most diabolical plots of which there is any record in the history of mankind. The conspiracy to which we allude is the GUNPOWDER TREASON. A scheme so infernally dark will require some elucidation.

The Roman Catholics in general were much disappointed,

and even exasperated, by the king's conduct in religious matters. He was not only the son of the unfortunate Mary, whose life they believed to have been sacrificed to their cause ; but, in order to quiet opposition, and make his accession to the throne of England more easy, he had given them hopes that he would tolerate their religion. They therefore expected great favour and indulgence under his government. But they soon discovered their mistake ; and, equally surprised and enraged, when they found James had resolved to execute the rigorous laws enacted against them, they determined on vengeance. Some of the most zealous of the party, under the direction of Garnet, the superior of the Jesuits in England, conspired to exterminate, at one blow, the most powerful of their enemies in the kingdom ; and in consequence of that blow to re-establish the Catholic faith. Their conspiracy had for its object the destruction of the king and parliament. For this purpose, they lodged thirty-six barrels of gunpowder in a vault beneath the House of Lords, usually let as a coal-cellar, and which had been hired by Percy, a near relation of the family of Northumberland, and one of the original conspirators. The time fixed for the execution of the plot was the fifth of November, the day appointed for the meeting of the parliament, when the king, queen, and prince of Wales were expected to be in the house, together with the principal nobility and gentry. The rest of the royal family were to be seized, and all despatched, except the princess Elizabeth, James's youngest daughter, yet an infant, who was to be raised to the throne, under the care of a Catholic protector.

The destined day at length drew nigh, and the conspirators were filled with the strongest assurance of success. Nor without reason ; for, although the horrid secret had been communicated to above twenty persons, no remorse, no pity, no fear of punishment, no hope of reward, had induced any one accomplice, after more than twelve months, either to abandon the conspiracy, or to make a discovery of it. But the holy fury by which they were actuated, though it had extinguished in their breasts every generous sentiment and every selfish motive, yet left them susceptible to those bigoted partialities by which it was inspired, and which fortunately saved the nation. A short time before the meeting of parliament, Lord Monteagle,

a Catholic nobleman, whose father, Lord Morley, had been a great sufferer during the reign of Elizabeth, on account of his attachment to popery, received the following letter :

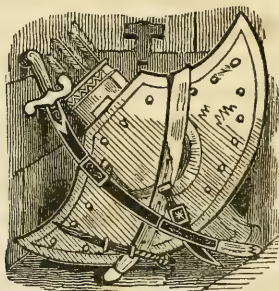
“ My lord—Out of the love I bear to some of your friends, I have a care of your preservation : therefore, I would advise you, as you tender your life, to devise some excuse to shift off your attendance at this parliament ; for God and man have resolved to punish the wickedness of this time. And think not slightly of this advertisement ; but retire yourself into your country, where you may expect the event in safety : for, though there be no appearance of any stir, yet I say they will receive a terrible blow this parliament, and yet they shall not see who hurts them. This counsel is not to be contemned ; because it may do you good, and can do you no harm—for the danger is past as soon as you have burned the letter ; and I hope God will give you the grace to make good use of it, to whose holy protection I commend you.”

Though Monteagle was inclined to think this a foolish attempt to expose him to ridicule, by frightening him from attending his duty in parliament, he judged it safest to carry the letter to Lord Salisbury, secretary of state. Salisbury either did or pretended to think it a light matter ; so that all farther inquiry was dropped till the king, who had been for some time at Royston, returned to town. To the timid sagacity of James, the matter appeared in a more important point of view. From the serious and earnest style of the letter, he conjectured that it intimated some dark and dangerous design against the state ; and many particular expressions in it, such as *great*, *sudden*, and *terrible blow*, yet the *authors concealed*, seemed to denote some contrivance by gunpowder. It was, therefore, thought proper to inspect all the vaults below the two houses of parliament. This inspection, however, was purposely delayed till the day before the meeting of the great council of the nation ; when, on searching the vaults beneath the House of Lords, the gunpowder was discovered, though concealed under great piles of wood and fagots ; and Guido Fawkes, an officer in the Spanish service, who stood in a dark corner, and passed himself for Percy's servant, was seized and carried to the Tower.

This man had been sent for from Flanders, on account of his determined courage and known zeal in the Catholic cause. He

was accordingly intrusted with the most trying part in the enterprise. The matches, and every thing proper for setting fire to the train, were found in his pocket. He at first behaved with great insolence and obstinacy; not only refusing to discover his accomplices, but expressing the utmost regret that he had lost the precious opportunity of at least sweetening his death by taking vengeance on his and God's enemies. But, after some days' confinement and solitude, his courage failed him on being shown the rack, and he made a full discovery of all the conspirators. Several of them were men of ancient family, independent fortune, and unspotted character—instigated alone to so great a crime by a fanatical zeal, which led them to believe that they were serving their Maker, while they were contriving the ruin of their country and the destruction of their species.

Such of the conspirators as were in London, on hearing that Fawkes was arrested, hurried down to Warwickshire; where Sir Everard Digby, one of their associates, was already in arms, in order to seize the princess Elizabeth, who was then at Lord Harrington's in that county. They failed in their attempt to get hold of the princess; the county rose upon them, and they were all taken and executed, except three, who fell a sacrifice to their desperate valour; namely, Wright, a daring fanatic; Catesby, the original conspirator; and Percy, his first and most active associate.





DISCOVERY AND EXPLORATION OF NORTH AMERICA.

THE fame which Columbus had acquired by his first discoveries on this western continent spread through Europe, and inspired many with the spirit of enterprise. As early as 1496, only four years after the first discovery of America, John Cabot, a Venetian, obtained a commission from Henry VII. to discover unknown lands, and annex them to the crown. In the spring he sailed from England with two ships, carrying with him his three sons. In this voyage, which was intended for China, he fell in with the north side of Terra Labrador, and coasted as far as 67° north latitude. Next year he made a second voyage with his son Sebastian, who afterwards proceeded in the discoveries which his father had begun. On the 24th of



PONCE DE LEON.

June he discovered Bonavista, on the north-east side of Newfoundland; traversed the coast from Davis's Straits to Cape Florida; and in 1502, brought three natives of Newfoundland to Henry VII.

In 1513, Ponce de Leon sailed from Porto Rico northerly, and discovered the continent in $30^{\circ} 8'$ north latitude. He landed in April, a season when the country around was covered with verdure, and in full bloom. This circumstance induced him to call the country FLORIDA, which, for many years, was the common name for both North and South America.

In 1516, Sebastian Cabot and Sir Thomas Pert explored the coast as far as Brazil in South America. This vast extent of country, the coast whereof was thus explored, remained unclaimed and unsettled by any European power, (except by the Spaniards in South America,) for almost a century from the time of its discovery.

It was not till 1524 that France attempted discoveries on the American coast. Stimulated by his enterprising neighbours, Francis I. sent John Verrazano, a Florentine, to America, to make discoveries; who traversed the coast from 28° to 50° north latitude, but in a second voyage, some time after, was lost



CARTIER TAKING POSSESSION OF CANADA.



VERRAZANO.

In 1525, Stephen Gomez, the first Spaniard who came upon the American coast for discovery, sailed from Groyn in Spain to Cuba and Florida, thence northward to Cape Razo, in 46° north latitude, in search of a north-west passage to the East Indies.

In the spring of 1534, by the direction of Francis I., a fleet was fitted out at St. Malo's in France, with design to make discoveries. The command of this fleet was given to James Cartier. He arrived at Newfoundland in May of this year. Thence he sailed northerly; and, on the day of the festival of St. Lawrence, he found himself, in about $48^{\circ} 30'$ north latitude, in the midst of a broad gulf, which he named St. Lawrence. He gave the same name to the river which empties into it. In this voyage, he sailed as far as 51° north latitude, expecting in vain to find a passage to China. Next year he sailed up the river St. Lawrence three hundred leagues to the great and swift fall. He called the country New France; built a fort, in which he spent the winter, and returned in the following spring to France.

In 1522, Francis La Roche was sent to Canada, by the French king, with three ships and two hundred men, women, and children. They wintered here in a fort which they had built, and returned in the spring. About the year 1550, a large number of adventurers sailed for Canada, but were never after heard of. In 1578, the king of France commissioned the marquis de la



Roche to conquer Canada, and other countries not possessed by any Christian prince. We do not learn, however, that La Roche ever attempted to execute his commission, or that any further attempts were made to settle Canada during this century.

On the 12th of May, 1539, Ferdinand de Soto, with nine hundred men, besides seamen, sailed from Cuba, having for his object the conquest of Florida. On the 30th of May he arrived at Spirito Santo, from whence he travelled northward four hundred and fifty leagues from the sea. Here he discovered a river of a quarter a mile wide and nineteen fathoms deep, on the bank of which he died and was buried, May, 1542, aged forty-two years. Alverdo, his successor, built seven brigantines, and the year following embarked upon the river. In seventeen days he proceeded down the river four hundred leagues, where he judged it to be fifteen leagues wide. From the largeness of the river at that place of his embarkation, he concluded its source must have been at least four hundred leagues above, so that the whole length of the river in his opinion must have been more than eight hundred leagues. As he passed down the river, he found it opened by two mouths into the gulf of Mexico. These circumstances lead us to conclude, that this river, so early discovered, was the one which we now call the Mississippi.



SOTO DISCOVERING THE MISSISSIPPI.



In 1562, Admiral Coligny, of France, sent out a fleet under the command of John Ribault. He arrived at Cape Francis on the coast of Florida, near which, on the first of May, he discovered and entered a river which he called May river. It is probable, this river is the same which we now call St. Mary's. As he coasted northward, he discovered eight other rivers, one of which he called Port Royal and sailed up it several leagues. On one of the rivers he built a fort, and called it Charles, in which he left a colony, under the direction of Captain Albert. The severity of Albert's measures excited a mutiny, in which, to the ruin of the colony, he was slain.

Two years after, Coligny sent Rene Laudonniere with three ships to Florida. In June he arrived at the river May, on which he built a fort, and, in honour to his king, Charles IX., he called it CAROLINA. In August, Captain Ribault arrived at Florida the second time, with a fleet of seven vessels to recruit the colony, which, two years before, he had left under the direction of the unfortunate Captain Albert. In September, Pedro Melendes, with six Spanish ships, pursued Ribault up the river on which he had settled, and, overpowering him in numbers, cruelly massacred him and his whole company. Melendes, having in his way taken possession of the country, built three forts, and left them garrisoned with twelve hundred soldiers. Laudonniere and his colony on May river, receiving information of the fate of Ribault, took the alarm and escaped to France.

In 1567, a fleet of three ships was sent from France to Florida, under the command of Dominique de Gourges. The object was to dispossess the Spaniards of that part of Florida which they had cruelly and unjustifiably seized three years before. He arrived on the coast of Florida, April, 1568, and soon after made a successful attack upon the forts. The recent cruelty of Melendes and his company excited revenge and retaliation. He took the forts; put most of the Spaniards to the sword, and having burned and demolished all their fortresses, returned to France.

In 1576, Captain Frobisher was sent to find out a north-west passage to the East Indies. The first landing which he made on the coast was upon a cape, which he called Queen Elizabeth's Foreland. In coasting northerly he discovered the straits which bear his name. He prosecuted his search for a passage into the



RALEIGH.

western ocean, till he was prevented by the ice, and then returned to England.

In 1579, Sir Humphrey Gilbert obtained a patent from Queen Elizabeth for lands not yet possessed by any Christian prince, provided he would take possession within six years. With this encouragement he sailed for America, and on the 1st of August 1583, anchored in Conception Bay. Afterwards he discovered and took possession of St. John's Harbour, and the country south; but in pursuing his discoveries he was unfortunately lost, and the intended settlement was prevented.

In 1584, two patents were granted by Queen Elizabeth, one to Adrian Gilbert, (Feb. 6,) the other to Sir Walter Raleigh, for lands not possessed by any Christian prince. By the direction of Sir Walter, two ships were fitted and sent out, under the command of Philip Amidas and Arthur Barlow. In July they arrived on the coast, and anchored in a harbour seven leagues west of the Roanoke. On the 13th of July, they took possession of the country, and, in honour of their virgin Queen Elizabeth, they called it Virginia, which for some time after became the common name for all North America.



THE SETTLEMENT AT ROANOKE.

In 1585, Sir Walter Raleigh sent Sir Richard Grenville to America with seven ships. He arrived at Wococon harbour in June. Having stationed a colony of more than a hundred people at Roanoke, under the direction of Captain Ralph Lane, he coasted north-east as far as Chesapeake Bay. The colony under Captain Lane endured extreme hardships, and must have perished, had not Sir Francis Drake fortunately returned to Virginia and carried them to England, after having made several conquests for the queen in the West Indies and other places. A fortnight after, Sir Richard Grenville arrived with new recruits, and left fifty men at the same place.

In 1587, Sir Walter sent another company to Virginia, under Governor White, with a charter, and twelve assistants. In July he arrived at Roanoke. Not one of the second company remained. He determined, however, to risk a third colony. Accordingly he left a hundred and fifteen people at the old settlement, and returned to England. On the 13th of August, 1587. Manteo was baptized in Virginia. He was the first native Indian who received that ordinance in that part of America. On the 18th, Mrs. Dare was delivered of a daughter, whom she

called *Virginia*. She was the first English child that was born in North America. In 1590, Governor White came over to Virginia with supplies and recruits for his colony; but, to his great grief, not a man was to be found. They had all miserably famished with hunger, or had been massacred by the Indians.

In 1602, Bartholomew Gofnold, with thirty-two persons, made a voyage to North Virginia, and discovered and gave names to Cape Cod, Martha's Vineyard, and Elizabeth Islands, and to Dover Cliff. Elizabeth Island was the place which they fixed for their settlement. But the courage of those who should have remained failing, they all returned to England. All the attempts to settle this continent which were made by the Dutch, French, and English, from its discovery to the present time, a period of a hundred years, proved ineffectual. The Spaniards only, of all the European nations, had been successful. There is no account of there having been one European family, at this time, in all the vast extent of coast from Florida to Greenland.

In 1603, Martin Pring and William Brown were sent by Sir Walter Raleigh, with two small vessels, to make discoveries in North Virginia. They came upon the coast, which was broken with a multitude of islands, in $43^{\circ} 30'$ north latitude. They coasted southward to Cape Cod Bay; thence round the cape into a commodious harbour in latitude $41^{\circ} 25'$, where they went ashore and tarried seven weeks, during which time they loaded one of their vessels with sassafras, and returned to England.

Bartholomew Gilbert, in a voyage to South Virginia, in search of the third colony which had been left there by Governor White in 1587, having touched at several of the West India Islands, landed near Chesapeake Bay, where, in a skirmish with the Indians, he and four of his men were unfortunately slain. The rest, without any farther search for the colony, returned to England.

France, being at this time in a state of tranquillity, in consequence of the edict of Nantz in favour of the Protestants passed by Henry IV. in 1598, and of the peace with Philip king of Spain and Portugal, was induced to pursue her discoveries in America. Accordingly the king signed a patent in favour of De Mons, in 1603, of all the country from the 40th to the 46th

degrees of north latitude, under the name of Acadia. Next year De Mons ranged the coast from St. Lawrence to Cape Sable, and so round Cape Cod.

In May, 1605, George's Island and Pentecost harbour were discovered by Captain George Weymouth. In May he entered a large river in latitude $43^{\circ} 20'$, (variation $11^{\circ} 15'$ west,) which Mr. Prince, in his chronology, supposes must have been Sagadahok; but from the latitude it was more probably the Piscataqua. Captain Weymouth carried with him to England five of the natives.



SETTLEMENT OF VIRGINIA.



IN the year 1608, Captain Newport sailed from England with three ships and one hundred and five men, who were destined to remain in the country which they were about to visit. Among these were some gentlemen of distinguished families, particularly Mr. Percy, brother to the earl of Northumberland, and several officers of reputation, who had carried arms during the reign of Elizabeth. Though they followed the old course, and sailed towards the West Indies, yet when they had reached the American shore, they were driven to the north of Roanoke by a storm, and accidentally discovered Cape Henry. This is the southern boundary of Chesapeake Bay. They stretched at once into that noble harbour, which receives the waters of the Powhatan, the Potomac, the Susquehanna, and all the rivers which give fertility to this part of America, and adapt it so wonderfully to the purposes of inland navigation. Newport sailed up the Powhatan, to which he gave the name of James River, in honour of the sovereign under whose authority he acted; and here he chose a place of residence for the adventurers who were to settle in the country. They raised a few huts to protect them from the inclemency of the weather: and the council who were nominated by the king, and were to reside in America, opened their commissions and entered upon their office. The infant settlement was called Jamestown; an appellation which it still retains; and, though it never rose to great wealth or distinction, it was the first of the English establishments in the New World, and has all the honour among the American States that antiquity can confer.

The Indians among whom the European adventurers had settled were divided into small and independent tribes, and separated from one another by hereditary and unabating resentment.



CAPTAIN JOHN SMITH.

They were able, however, to disturb the colony by their petty hostilities; though they could not, at this time, muster a force sufficient to destroy it. But this was not the only calamity which the Europeans were doomed to suffer. The stock of provisions which they had brought with them from England was nearly exhausted; and what remained was of a quality so bad, that it was unfit to be eaten. This scanty allowance to which they were reduced, as well as the influence of a climate to which they were not yet habituated, gave rise to diseases, and quickened their virulence; so that the number of the colonists gradually diminished. In this exigency, they were relieved by the talents and activity of Captain Smith. Immediately after the arrival of the settlers, and in consequence of the disagreements which had taken place during the voyage, he had been expelled from the council, though chosen by the king as one of its members; but such were his abilities and enterprising temper, that he was now unanimously called to his seat, and invited to take a chief part in the administration. He was not unworthy of the charge, or unequal to the duties which his situation required. He fortified Jamestown, so as to protect the colonists from the injuries of the savages. He marched in quest of those tribes who had given most disturbance to the Europeans; and partly by address and good treatment, he put an end to their hostilities, and procured from them a supply of provisions, of which the colony was so much in need. By the exertions of Smith, contentment was speedily restored; and this he considered as a sufficient recompense for all his toils and dangers. But, unfortunately, in one of his excursions, he was surprised by a numerous party of Indians, and compelled to retreat; and the savages pressing hard upon him, he sunk to the neck in a morass, and was taken prisoner. He was carried to Powhatan, the most considerable sachem or chief of Virginia, and would have suffered a cruel death, if Pocahontas, the daughter of Powhatan, animated by that concern for the English which the adventurers from the west never failed to experience, had not rushed between him and the executioner, and begged her father to spare his life. Her request was granted; and she afterwards procured him his liberty; and from time to time sent provisions to the colony.

When Smith returned to Jamestown, he found no more than



CAPTAIN SMITH EXPLORING CHESAPEAKE BAY.

thirty-eight persons within the walls which he had lately raised. The spirits of the colony were completely broken. Every individual was filled with despondency, and anxious to leave a country which was so inhospitable. He prevailed upon them, however, to remain for some time; and provisions arriving from England, abundance and satisfaction were happily restored. Smith had formed a determination of visiting and examining the country in the neighbourhood of the place where the English had settled; and, in order to prosecute his design, he embarked with a handful of adventurers (A. D. 1609) in an open boat, ill adapted to the purposes for which it was intended. He advanced towards the north, as far as the river Susquehanna, and visited the country both on the east and the west; and trading with some of the natives, and fighting with others, he taught them to respect the English for their superiority in knowledge and in arts, and to dread the operation of the weapons which they used. He afterwards made a second excursion; and at length drew out a map of the creeks and inlets which he had entered, as well as the adjacent country, with such accuracy that his delineation has served as a basis and a model for all those who have since attempted to exhibit the geography of the United States.

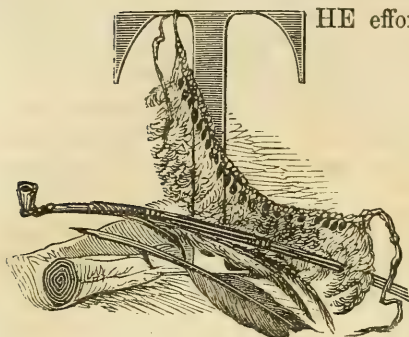
In the same year, (1609,) a remarkable change took place in the constitution of the colony. A new charter was issued, of a more enlarged and liberal nature than the former. The boundaries of the settlement were extended; the council resident in America was abolished, and the administration of affairs vested in a council, resident in London. A numerous body of respect-

able merchants and others were joined to the former adventurers, and they were all incorporated under the name of "The Treasurer and Company of Adventurers of the city of London, for the first colony in Virginia." The proprietors of this company were allowed to chose the persons of whom the council was to be composed; and powers were granted them to elect a governor, who was to manage their affairs in the colony, and to execute the orders which should be issued from England. They were farther authorized to enact such laws, and introduce such regulations, as they should judge most advantageous for the settlers in America. These ample privileges were conferred in an age when privileges of a similar nature were not often conferred; but it is probable, that James, with all his sagacity, did not perceive the consequences in which they were likely to terminate.

As soon as the company had got the management of their affairs into their own hands, the proprietors daily increased both in numbers and respectability.



SETTLEMENT OF NEW ENGLAND.

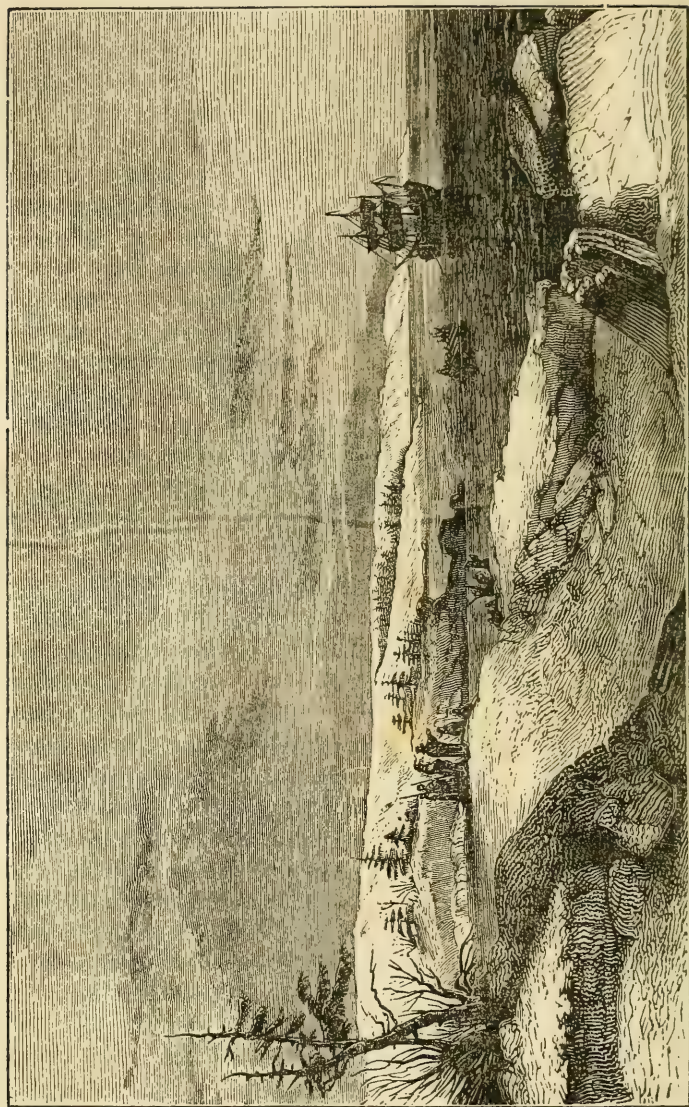


THE efforts of the company at Plymouth were neither so vigorous, nor at first so successful, as those of the company in London.

For a while their attempts were limited to voyages made for the purpose of taking fish, or, at most, of trading with the natives, and procuring furs.

In one of these attempts, Captain Smith, of whom we have spoken in the history of Virginia, explored with accuracy (A. D. 1614) that part of the American coast which stretches from Penobscot to Cape Cod; and having delineated a map of the country, he presented it to Charles, prince of Wales, who gave to the region that Smith had visited the name of New England, which it still retains.

But what the exertions of the company were unable to accomplish, was effected by a principle which has, at all times, had a chief share in the revolutions that take place in human affairs. When the light of the Reformation had dawned upon Europe, the extravagant doctrines and absurd practices of the Romish church filled the minds of those who had ventured to think freely on religious topics, with horror and irreconcilable aversion. The spirit which prevailed at that time was by no means satisfied either with the partial changes which took place in the reigns of Henry VIII. and Elizabeth, or the imperious manner in which these sovereigns dictated a creed to their people; and the less so, as the opinions of the royal theologians themselves, especially those of the former, had undergone considerable alterations. Elizabeth, determined that all her subjects should



LANDING OF THE PILGRIMS.

conform to the belief which she had chosen for them, established a High Commission for ecclesiastical affairs; with powers not inferior, or less hostile to the rights of conscience, than those of the Inquisition in Spain. Some attempts were made in the House of Commons to check these arbitrary and odious proceedings: but Elizabeth interfered with her prerogative, and the guardians of the people were silent. They even consented to an act, by which those who should be absent from church for a month were subjected to a fine and imprisonment, and, if they persisted in their obstinacy, to death without benefit of clergy. In consequence of this iniquitous statute, and the distresses in which the Puritans were involved, a body of them, called Brownists from the name of their founder, left England, and settled at Leyden, in Holland, under the care of Mr. John Robinson, their pastor. But this situation at length proving disagreeable to them, and their children intermarrying with the Dutch, they were apprehensive lest their church, which they regarded as a model of untarnished purity, should gradually decay; and having obtained a promise from James I. that they should not be molested in the exercise of their religion, they fled to America, and founded the colony of New Plymouth. They continued for some time to adhere to their religious opinions, but never became so numerous as to attract, in any great degree, the attention of the mother country. They were afterwards united to the colony of Massachusetts Bay, the origin and progress of which we shall now relate.

From the tranquillity which the Brownists had enjoyed at New Plymouth, and the sufferings to which those who held the same opinions were exposed in England, an association was formed by Mr. White, a clergyman at Dorchester, in order to lead a new colony to that part of America, where their brethren were settled. They applied to the Grand Council of Plymouth, of which the duke of Lennox and the marquis of Buckingham were members, (for the original company had been dissolved by the authority of the king,) and purchased from them all that part of New England which lies three miles to the south of Charles river, and three miles to the north of Merrimac river, and extends from the Atlantic Ocean to the South Sea. They obtained a charter from Charles I., by which the same ample privileges were conferred upon them which James had conferred upon the

two companies of Virginia; and they obtained it with a facility which appears to us altogether unaccountable, when we think of the principles and views of those to whom it was granted. They embarked, to the number of three hundred, in five ships, (A. D. 1629,) and landed at New England. They found there the remains of a small body of Puritans, who had left their country the year before, under Endicott, a frantic enthusiast; and uniting with these, they settled at a place to which Endicott had given the name of Salem. This was the first permanent town in Massachusetts.

All these emigrants were Puritans of the strictest sort, and their notions of ecclesiastical affairs were reduced to the lowest standard of Calvinistic simplicity. But with an inconsistency of which there are many examples, and with which no particular sect can be charged to the exclusion of others, the very men who had just escaped from the intolerance of persecution in England, shortly after their arrival, banished two of their number from the settlement, on account of a difference in religious opinion.

It was by no means agreeable to the planters in America that they should be governed by the company in England, the members of which were at a distance, and unacquainted with their circumstances; and not a few of the proprietors themselves were disheartened by the oppression of Laud, and eager to be disengaged from an adventure which was yet unpromising. It was therefore determined, by general consent, that "the charter should be transferred, and the government of the corporation settled in Massachusetts Bay." This is perhaps the most remarkable occurrence in the history of English colonization. The right of the company to make such a transference is very questionable. The indifference of the king in allowing it to take place is no less astonishing: but he was engaged at this time in disputes with his parliament, and perhaps was not displeased that a body of his subjects, who were known for their dislike to his government, were removed to a country where their turbulent spirit could not so easily prove dangerous to his interests. Whatever was the reason of Charles's connivance, the adventurers proceeded without delay to execute their plans. In a general court, Winthrop was chosen governor, and eighteen persons were nominated his assistants; and in these, together



WINTHROP.



SETTLEMENT OF BOSTON.

with a body of freemen who should settle in New England, all the rights of the company were vested. In consequence of this alteration, seventeen vessels and three hundred planters sailed for America. As soon as they arrived at New England, they explored the country in quest of a better station than that of Endicott at Salem, and laid the foundations of many towns, especially those of Charlestown and Boston.

As the same causes which at first led to emigration continued to operate, the number of the settlers increased, by arrivals from Europe almost every year. Among those who left their country about this time were two persons, afterwards distinguished on a more conspicuous theatre—Peters, the chaplain and assistant of Oliver Cromwell, and Mr. Vane, son to Sir Henry Vane, a man of note, a privy-councillor, and of great influence with the king. Mr. Vane was received by the planters with the fondest admiration. His grave and mortified appearance, and his reputation for wisdom and piety, together with the attention which he paid to the leading members of the church, all conspired to render him the favourite of the people; and he was appointed to the office of governor with universal approbation. But the part which he took in the religious disputes which then agitated

the colony, detaching many of his adherents from his interest, he quitted America in disgust, unregretted even by those who had so lately admired him.

Besides the meetings for the worship of God on Sunday, and the lecture every Thursday, the inhabitants of Boston assembled on the other days of the week for the purposes of religious conference and theological discussion. With a propriety which has not always distinguished the enthusiastic and the visionary, the females were strictly excluded from these assemblies. But Mrs. Hutchinson, a woman of some talents, and not deficient in eloquence, instituted a meeting of the sisters also; and her lectures were at first attended by many respectable persons of her own sex. The number of these daily increased. The doctrines of Mrs. Hutchinson soon became public and generally known; and Vane, the governor, whose prudence always forsook him when his thoughts were turned towards religious subjects, espoused the wildest of her tenets with the zeal which characterized the times in which he lived. She maintained, that purity of life was not an evidence of acceptance with God; that those who inculcated the necessity of a virtuous conduct preached only a covenant of works; and that as the Holy Ghost dwells personally in such as are justified, they have no occasion for positive laws to regulate their actions. These tenets, equally hostile to good sense and pernicious to society, were adopted and defended by many of the colonists. Mrs. Hutchinson, in order to separate her followers from such as opposed her, drew a marked line of distinction between them; the former she described as under a covenant of grace, and in a state of favour with the Almighty; and the latter, as under a covenant of works, and the objects of his displeasure. Dissensions prevailed and rose to a great height. Religious conferences were held; days of fasting and humiliation were appointed; a general synod was called; and, at last, to the honour of our rational nature, Mrs. Hutchinson's opinions were condemned as erroneous; and she herself was banished from the colony. It was after this decision that Vane quitted the settlement.

But whatever the pernicious consequences of these theological disputes might be, they certainly contributed to the more speedy population of America. The proceedings against Mrs. Hutchinson excited no little disgust in the minds of those who adhered



SIR HENRY VANE.

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BANISHMENT OF ROGER WILLIAMS.

to her sentiments. A party of these, withdrawing from the communion of their brethren, joined themselves to the disciples of Williams, who was banished from Salem in the year 1634; and purchasing from the Indians an island in Narraganset Bay, they gave to it the name of Rhode Island, and settled there. The colony of Connecticut owes its origin to the dissensions between Hooker and Cotton, two favourite preachers in Massachusetts; and those of New Hampshire and Maine, chiefly to the separation of Wheelwright, a proselyte of Mrs. Hutchinson, from the rest of the community in the same province.

These new establishments exposed the English to great dangers from the Indians, by whom they were surrounded. The Pequods, an ancient and martial tribe, were the first who took the alarm. Relinquishing their former animosities, they proposed to the Narragansets that they should unite against the common enemy; whose numbers became every day more formidable, and whose progress threatened them both with indiscriminate ruin. But such was the love of revenge, or the want

of foresight on the part of the Narragansets, that, instead of joining with the Pequods in defence of their country and their freedom, they communicated the proposal which had been made to them to the governor of Massachusetts Bay, and united with him against the Indians whom it was the English interest to oppose. The Pequods, exasperated rather than discouraged, took the field, and laid siege to Fort Saybrooke. Captain Tenderhill was despatched to its relief; and it was agreed by the colonies of Massachusetts, Plymouth, and Connecticut, that they should march next year into the country of the enemy, and put a final termination to their hostilities. The troops of Connecticut were first in motion. But the colony of Massachusetts was divided about the covenant of works and the covenant of grace. It was found that some, both of the officers and men who were to fight its battles, were yet under the covenant of works; the others therefore declared, that the blessing of God could not rest on the arms of such as differed from them on this metaphysical question; and it was not till after much alarm, and many changes, that they were sufficiently pure to begin the war. In the meanwhile, the troops of Connecticut were obliged to advance against the enemy. The Indians were posted on a rising ground, not far from the head of the river Mystic, and had fortified themselves with palisadoes, the only method of defence with which they were acquainted. They had been deceived by the movement of the English vessels from Saybrooke to Narraganset; and, imagining that the expedition was abandoned, had given themselves up to riot and security. At the break of day, while the Indians were overpowered with sleep, the colonists approached; and had not the savages been alarmed by the barking of a dog, their surprise and destruction would have been complete. They instantly raised the war-cry, and flew to such arms as they possessed. But though their courage was great, they were speedily discomfited by the discipline and bravery of the Europeans. The English shot at them through the palisadoes, forced their way through the works, and set fire to their huts. Many of the women and children perished in the flames. The confusion and terror became general, and scarcely any of the party escaped. This blow was followed by others equally effectual. The troops of Connecticut being reinforced at length by those of Massachusetts, they pursued the enemy from one retreat



MASSACRE OF THE PEQUODS.

to another; and in less than three months, the Pequods were so completely extirpated, that their very name as a tribe was lost. A few individuals, who escaped the general carnage, were incorporated with the neighbouring Indians.

In consequence of this decisive campaign, which was marked by cruelties required neither by good policy nor by necessity, the English enjoyed a long tranquillity in all their colonies.



RISE OF WALLENSTEIN.



ALBERT of Wallenstein was a Bohemian by birth, and had been brought up in the Protestant faith. While a schoolboy at Goldberg in Silesia, he had dreamed, like the patriarch Joseph, that the trees of the forest as well as his fellow-students bowed down and did homage before him ; and, at a later period, had studied in Italy the mystical science which taught him to read his future destiny in those fanciful combinations of the stars named by astrologers the houses of heaven. Entering the Imperial army, he distinguished himself in Hungary against the Turks ; and, having subsequently married a rich widow, raised with her money a regiment of cuirassiers, which did the emperor good service during the Bohemian insurrection. By a second wealthy marriage, and the favour of his master, who conferred on him the dukedom of Friedland, Wallenstein became so powerful that, when it was proposed to him to raise a force of 20,000 men, he at once declared that he was willing to bring 50,000 into the field. This proposal was eagerly embraced by the emperor, who nominated him generalissimo of the Imperial forces. In a few months Wallenstein, by dint of profuse gifts and still more liberal promises, had collected an army of adventurers from all the countries of Europe. The discipline of this ill-assorted body was suited to the character of those who composed it. Wallenstein allowed no priests in the camp, winked at the irregularities of his men when they did not interfere with military duty, rewarded with princely munificence those who distinguished themselves, and promoted the bravest of his common soldiers to posts of honour. To increase his influence over these wild mercenaries, Wallenstein affected a mysterious adoration



WALLENSTEIN.

of the goddess Fortune, whose name he adopted as the watchword of his army. Hints also of midnight communings with disembodied spirits were uttered under their breath by the superstitious troopers, whenever their general, after a night spent in his astrological studies, appeared in the camp with a countenance so haggard and ghastly as well-nigh to warrant the belief that his hours of retirement had been passed in converse with the powers of darkness. Wallenstein's great object, in assuming this command, was to restore the Imperial power in its fullest extent: "We want no princes," he was wont to say, "but a single master, as in France and Spain." As the only opposition to this plan was in the North of Germany, (for the weak southern princes were already subjugated,) Wallenstein, in conjunction with Tilly, marched into Holstein, and having compelled the king of Denmark to sign an ignominious peace, appeared with his army before the strongly fortified town of Stralsund, which would have surrendered at the first summons, had not the burghers, disgusted at the cowardice of their magistrates, taken the matter into their own hands, and prepared for an obstinate resistance. Irritated at this disappointment, Wallenstein swore that he would take the place, though it were bound to heaven with chains of iron; but the brave citizens, reinforced by two thousand Swedes and a body of Scotch mercenaries in the pay of Denmark, made so obstinate a defence that he was compelled to raise the siege after losing 12,000 men. This check decided for the present the fate of Europe. Wallenstein, no longer deemed invincible, and violently opposed by the Jesuits, fell into disgrace, and, being formally deprived of his command, retired to Prague. His army was partly disbanded, and partly incorporated with the troops of Tilly, who proceeded to invest Magdeburg, where the people had successfully resisted an edict of the emperor for the suppression of Protestant worship.





GUSTAVUS ADOLPHUS.

EVENTS OF THE THIRTY YEARS' WAR—GUSTAVUS ADOLPHUS—BATTLE OF LEIPSIC.



FROM Holland to the Carinthian mountains, and from Prussia to the Alps of Berne, wherever the German tongue was spoken, Luther's and Calvin's doctrines had penetrated, and found a way to the hearts of the people. With the exception of Bavaria and the Tyrol, every district of Germany had at one time or other fought for liberty of conscience ; yet there now remained no vestige of it except in the single city of Magdeburg, whose brave defenders still held out against the assaults of Tilly. In the midst of this melancholy prospect, a new ray of hope broke through the clouds which hovered over Protestant Germany. The throne of Sweden was at this time occupied by Gustavus Adolphus, a zealous and sincere supporter of the Reformation, who had long witnessed with grief the sufferings of his brethren in Germany, but had hitherto been debarred from rendering them any

assistance by the wars in which he was engaged with Denmark and Poland. Yet these very wars had given him that unrivalled military knowledge which afterwards produced such glorious results. His Swedes were the best and most formidable soldiers of that day, warlike by nature, hardened by their severe climate, thoroughly disciplined, experienced in the field, full of confidence, and, more than all, inspired by a strong religious conviction that the cause for which they drew their swords was favoured by the Almighty. As soon, therefore, as Gustavus had secured an honourable peace with Denmark and Poland, he had both leisure to undertake, and thousands of brave spirits ready to aid him in accomplishing, the defence of his brethren in Germany. Besides his zeal for the common cause, the Swedish king had also private injuries to avenge: Austrians had fought against him in the ranks of the Polish army, and Wallenstein had insulted his ambassador, without his having been able in either case to obtain satisfaction. On the 20th of May, 1630, Gustavus Adolphus entered the senate-house at Stockholm, to take a solemn farewell of the estates of his kingdom. He had already made the necessary arrangements for the administration of public affairs during his absence, and set his house in order, as one who was about to go forth to death. Taking his young daughter Christina in his arms, he presented her to the estates as his successor, and caused them to swear fidelity to her, in the event of his never returning. He then read a paper, in which his wishes respecting the government of the country during his absence, or, in case of his death, during the minority of his daughter, were distinctly explained. The whole assembly melted into tears, and the king himself was so deeply affected, that some minutes elapsed before he could summon sufficient firmness to pronounce his farewell address. "It is not lightly, or without due deliberation," thus he began, "that I involve myself and you in this new and dangerous war. Almighty God is my witness, that I fight not for mine own pleasure. The emperor has offered me, in the person of my ambassador, the grossest insults; he has assisted my enemies, my friends and brethren he persecutes, tramples my religion in the dust, and stretches out his hand to seize my crown. The oppressed people of Germany urgently implore our aid, and, if it please God, they shall not be disap-

pointed. I know the dangers to which my life will be exposed: these I have never shunned, nor do I hope eventually to escape them. It is true that, until the present hour, the Almighty hath marvellously preserved me: but I shall die at last in defence of my native land. I commend you all to the protection of Heaven. Be upright, be conscientious, walk unblamably: so shall we meet one another again in eternity. To you, my counsellors, I first address myself,—may God enlighten you, and fill you with wisdom, that you may ever advise that which conduces most to the welfare of my kingdom. You, brave nobles, I commend to the protection of God. Go forth, and prove yourselves worthy descendants of those heroic Goths who laid ancient Rome in the dust. You, ministers of the church, I exhort to unanimity and concord. Be yourselves ensamples of those virtues which ye preach, and abuse not your dominion over the souls of my people. To you, deputies of the burgher and peasant orders, I wish the blessing of Heaven, a joyful harvest to reward your toils, fulness to your barns, and abundance of all the good things of life. For all, absent as well as present, I offer my prayers to Heaven. I now bid you affectionately farewell—Farewell! perhaps for ever.” On the 24th of June, the hundredth anniversary of the Augsburg Confession, Gustavus Adolphus landed at Usedom in the midst of a violent thunderstorm. As soon as he touched the German soil, he fell on his knees, and called God to witness that this campaign was undertaken, not for his own honour, but in the cause of the gospel. His army at this time consisted of only 16,000 men, among whom were thirty companies of Germans; and so little sensation did his landing produce, that the people of Vienna called him in derision the “Snow King,” who would melt away as he approached the south. The Protestants, on the other hand, looked to him as their deliverer, and named him the “Lion of the North.” He was of gigantic height, with an open countenance, large blue eyes, and a mild but majestic bearing; presenting in his whole appearance a remarkable contrast to the gloomy Wallenstein, the ferocious Tilly, and most of the German princes, who affected a mysterious demeanour, to cover their low plans of personal ambition. Finding himself unsupported by the northern Protestants, Gustavus told the duke of Mecklenburg, it was his intention to march on Magdeburg, and

relieve that city: "If none will stand by me," continued he, "I shall at once retire, make the best peace I can with the emperor, and return to Stockholm. This I shall have little difficulty in effecting: but at the day of judgment you must give an account for having abandoned the cause of God and of his gospel—yea, even in this world you will have your reward." The electors of Saxony and Brandenburg, who were well aware how valuable their friendship must be to either side, held back for a time, observing an armed neutrality, which Gustavus would not break up by violent means, lest he should at once furnish them with an excuse for joining the emperor. This unfortunate delay decided the fate of Magdeburg, which had received no aid from Gustavus except the sending them one of his officers, Colonel Falkenstein, who entered the place in the disguise of a boatman, and took command of the feeble and dispirited garrison. On the night of the 10th of May, 1631, the Imperial party within the walls called loudly for surrender. At four o'clock in the morning, Falkenstein hastened to the town-hall, and, while he was in consultation with the magistrates, Pappenheim, without waiting for orders from Tilly, scaled the walls at a place where the sentinel was unfortunately asleep, and before an alarm could be given, appeared with his men in front of the hall. Falkenstein rushed out, and was instantly shot dead. Still the citizens, in spite of the overwhelming force brought against them, resisted bravely, until their powder failed, when they were obliged to surrender at discretion. Meanwhile the rest of the Imperialists had entered at two undefended gates, and a scene ensued too horrible for description. Even a humane general might have found it impossible to restrain such troops in the moment of victory; but this the ferocious old man who commanded the Imperialists did not even attempt. Some officers, who implored him to have mercy on the unresisting citizens, were ordered to return in an hour; "I will then," said he, "see what can be done; but the soldier must have something for his labour and danger." In less than half that time, the work of blood was at its height. The furious soldiers spared neither age nor sex. Almost all the men were beheaded, and a great number of the women. Two clergymen were slain as they stood before the altar. On entering the town, Pappenheim had ordered some houses to be

set on fire; the wind being strong, the flames soon spread, and in a short time the whole city, with the exception of a few houses and the cathedral, was a heap of ashes. These scenes continued until the 13th, when Tilly himself entered, and restored discipline. Four thousand persons, who had taken refuge in the fire-proof cathedral, were admitted to quarter, and for the first time during three days obtained something to eat. It is said that they owed this favour to the vanity of Tilly, who was flattered at being addressed in a Latin oration by one of their preachers. The terrible commander, in a sort of masquerading dress, which at any other time would have excited laughter,—wearing a short jacket of green satin, and a high-crowned hat with a long red feather which drooped over his ghastly countenance, his whole appearance being, we are told, that of a lunatic mountebank,—rode slowly through the town, gloating on the heaps of dead bodies with which the streets were covered. In a letter to the emperor, he speaks of this scene of murder and desolation as the greatest victory that had been achieved since the taking of Troy and Jerusalem. “And sincerely,” he adds, “do I pity the ladies of your Imperial family, that they could not be present as spectators of the same.” Gustavus Adolphus now resolved, come what might, no longer to spare the electors whose indecision had caused this terrible calamity. On the 11th of June, he appeared before Berlin, and offered George William the choice either of instantly joining him, or seeing his capital laid in ashes. The terrified elector, after a little resistance, signed the treaty of alliance; and Gustavus garrisoned the fortresses of Berlin, Spandau, and Küstrin. Tilly, having been repulsed on the Hessian frontier, had marched to the great plain of Leipzig, in the hope of terrifying the elector of Saxony into an alliance: but that prince now declared himself on the side of the Swedes; and eighteen thousand Saxons having joined Gustavus Adolphus, the allied army advanced on Leipzig, which was already in the hands of Tilly. The difference between the Swedish and Imperial armies, which now met for the first time, was very remarkable. In the camp of Gustavus religious service was regularly performed, sometimes to the army in general, on which occasions the king was always present, sometimes by the chaplain of each regiment to those more immediately intrusted to his charge. The kind-

ness with which the Swedish soldiers treated the unarmed citizens and peasants, the strict morality of their lives, and the gentleness of their manners, rendered them universally objects of respect and love, and presented a striking contrast to the fearful oaths and shouts of licentious revelry with which Tilly's camp resounded day and night, and to the cruelties practised by his soldiers on the defenceless inhabitants. The Swedish troops had lately been equipped by Gustavus Adolphus with a view to rapid movements; they therefore wore no armour, and were accompanied by only a very light train of field artillery. The Imperialists, on the contrary, wore cuirasses, greaves, and helmets, had much less discipline among them than the Swedes, and were encumbered by heavy ordnance. Tilly had intended to await the coming up of two of his generals with reinforcements, before he engaged the enemy; although his own force amounted to 40,000 men, a number equal to that of the united Swedish and Saxon army; but the impetuous Pappenheim having entangled himself in a skirmish with the Swedes, Tilly was obliged to march to his assistance, muttering, as he went, "That fellow will ruin me yet in honour and reputation, and the emperor in land and people." Gustavus Adolphus, dressed in a simple gray surtout, with a white hat and gray feather, rode in front of the line, and exhorted his men to fight bravely. The Swedes composed the right wing, the Saxons the left. Tilly's army formed, according to the ancient mode of warfare, one long line; but Gustavus had broken his force into several small masses. The imperial artillery was planted on the ridge of a low hill immediately behind the army. The battle began on the 7th of September, 1631, with a furious cannonade, which lasted two hours. Then Tilly, abandoning his position on the hills, marched to meet the Swedes; but their fire was so galling that he was obliged to make a movement to the right, and attack the Saxons, who soon fled in confusion. Meanwhile Pappenheim, at the head of his terrible cuirassiers, had seven times charged the Swedes, and as often been driven back with great loss. While Tilly was engaged with the Saxons, the Swedes attacked him in flank, captured his artillery, and, turning it against himself, threw both him and Pappenheim into irrecoverable confusion. Four regiments of veterans, who had become gray in the Imperial service, resolved to be cut to pieces

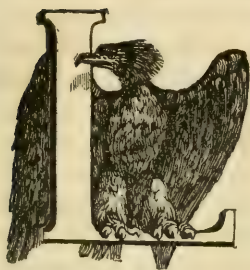
rather than yield. In detached bodies, they forced their way through the midst of the victorious army, and reached a little wood, where they continued to fight until night came on. The rest of the army fled in disorder, pursued by the Swedes, who cut down hundreds of the fugitives. In all the villages around the tocsin was rung, and the peasants rushed out to wreak vengeance on their oppressors. Meanwhile Tilly, a veteran soldier of seventy-two years of age, who had never before either sustained a defeat or been wounded, stood like a monument of despair, stupified and motionless. Three bullets had already pierced his body; but he refused to surrender himself, and a Swedish officer (called by the soldiers "Long Fritz") was in the act of cutting him down, when he was rescued by Duke Rudolph of Lauenburg. The miserable remains of his army took refuge in Haberstadt, where Tilly joined them. During his flight the curses of the peasants rang in his ears, and he was exasperated beyond measure at hearing everywhere the words of a rude song, in which his defeat was celebrated, and the chorus "Fly, Tilly, fly!" howled by hundreds of voices. After this victory the country people rose in a mass, and joined the standard of Gustavus in such numbers that in a few days his army was stronger than it had been before the battle.





TILLY.

DEATH OF TILLY—BATTLE OF LUTZEN— DEATH OF GUSTAVUS ADOLPHUS.



LEAVING his generals Baudis and Banner to follow up his successes in Northern Germany, Gustavus marched to Erfurt, and thence through the Thuringian forest to Würzburg, Frankfurt, and Mainz. Spiers, Landau, and many other places had already declared for the Swedes; and the banks of the Rhine and the Neckar resounded with

shouts of joy, as the army of the liberator advanced. The Swedish soldiers, on their part, delighted with the beauty of the country, and revelling in the unaccustomed luxuries of wine and wheaten bread, were eager to hold out the right hand of fellowship to men who received them so kindly.

Ulm sent a deputation to congratulate Gustavus on his successes. The count palatine, Christian of Birkenfeld, recruited for his army; Frederick of Bohemia returned to his palatinate; and, to crown the satisfaction of the Swedish king, his wife Eleanora joined him at Frankfort. Meanwhile "that old devil, Tilly," (as Gustavus always called him,) had begun to rally, and, after taking the town of Rotenburg, was intrenching himself in a strong position at Rain on the Lech, in order to cover Bavaria. Maximilian, with a considerable force, was also encamped in the same neighbourhood. The works on the Lech were nearly completed, when Gustavus, advancing to the opposite bank of the river, commenced a cannonade, which was kept up during three days without intermission. At the end of that time, the Imperialists became first aware that the enemy's engineers, under cover of the smoke, had succeeded in constructing a bridge, over which a considerable por-

tion of their army had already crossed the river. In a transport of rage, Tilly rushed forward to meet the Swedes; but his course was arrested by a cannon-ball, which shattered his thigh, and produced so ghastly a wound that he shortly afterwards died in great agony, advising the emperor, with his last breath, at whatever sacrifice of life or treasure, to secure Ratisbon, the key of Austria and Bavaria. Gustavus now marched to Augsburg, where he caused the gospel to be proclaimed, and thence to Munich, the gates of which were opened to him on his promising to spare the place. By his side rode Frederick, the deposed king of Bohemia, accompanied by his queen, and a large monkey dressed in the frock and hood of a Capuchin friar. In different parts of the city were found one hundred and forty pieces of cannon, which the Bavarians had buried, after filling them to the muzzle with gold and precious stones. Maximilian would gladly have made peace, but Gustavus Adolphus, in no very courtly language, told him that he was not to be trusted, adding some coarse remarks better suited to the manners of that day than to the more refined taste of modern readers. The loss of Tilly now compelled the emperor to enter into negotiation with the only general who was capable of commanding an Imperial army at this critical juncture. Since his disgrace, Wallenstein had been living at Prague in more than regal state. His palace stood on the sites of several hundred houses, which had been pulled down to make room for the building: his gardens were full of handsome fountains and aviaries, some of which were so large that tall trees were enclosed within their wires: boys of noble family waited upon him as pages, and many of his former officers were still in his service. His smallest present was a thousand dollars; the lightest punishment which he inflicted was death. During his retirement, he had been endeavouring to bring about an alliance between Denmark, Saxony, and the empire, under the auspices, as it was generally supposed, of the emperor himself, although he afterwards thought proper to deny that he had corresponded with the duke of Friedland on that or any other subject during his banishment. The overtures of Ferdinand were received very coldly by Wallenstein, who refused to listen to any proposals until he was satisfied that the emperor was willing to reinstate him on terms dictated by himself. The conditions, which se-

cured to him an irresponsible command, having been at last conceded, the new dictator commenced recruiting, and in a few months found himself at the head of a considerable army, with which he easily drove the Saxons out of Bohemia. Gustavus Adolphus had wished to return to Bavaria, and carry the war into the heart of the Romanist states; but intelligence having reached him that Wallenstein had taken Leipzig, he at once determined to march northwards, and on the 27th of October arrived at Erfurt, where he took leave of his wife, with a melancholy foreboding that they were to meet no more on this side the grave. On the 1st of November he reached Naumberg, whither the inhabitants of the surrounding country flocked in crowds to gaze on the hero. Wherever he appeared, shouts of joy and affection welcomed him, thousands flinging themselves on their knees and struggling with one another for the privilege of kissing his feet or the sheath of his sword. This homage, although only the outpouring of gratitude and admiration, grievously disconcerted Gustavus. "Is it not," he said to his attendants, "as though this people were making a god of me? I pray that the vengeance of the Almighty may not fall on us for this audacious mummery, and show these foolish crowds but too soon that I am only a poor, weak, sinful mortal." "Thus," says Schiller, "did he prove himself doubly worthy of their tears, as the moment drew nigh which was to bid them flow." Having discovered through an intercepted letter that Pappenheim had been detached to lay siege to Halle, and that the Imperial troops were dispersed in winter-quarters, Gustavus abandoned his intention of joining the elector, and advanced at once to attack Wallenstein. Three guns from the castle of Weissenfels gave the signal to the Imperialists that the Swedish army was in sight. Wallenstein instantly drew his regiments together, and despatched messengers to command the immediate return of Pappenheim. On the 6th of November, Gustavus drew up his forces in nearly the same order which the year before had insured him the victory at Leipzig. The whole army formed two lines, having a canal on their right and in their rear, the high road in front, and the village of Lützen on their left. The infantry, under Count von Brake, occupied the centre, the cavalry the wings, and the artillery the front of the whole line. Duke Bernard of Saxe Weimar commanded the left wing, and

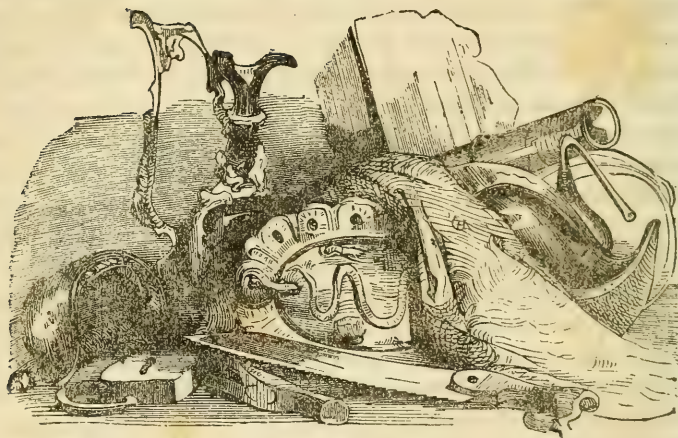
the king himself with his Swedish cavalry took up his position on the right. The order of battle of the second line was the same as that of the first; and behind it was stationed a corps de réserve under the command of Henderson, a Scotchman. On the evening before the battle, Wallenstein deepened the trenches on each side of the high road which divided the two armies, and placed a strong body of musketeers behind the mounds formed by the earth thrown out of them. In the rear of these was a battery of seven heavy guns; and on an eminence behind Lützen, on which stood a windmill, were planted fourteen lighter pieces, which commanded a great part of the field. The infantry, in five unwieldy divisions, were stationed about three hundred paces in the rear of the high road, their flanks being covered by cavalry. To conceal his weakness, Wallenstein ordered all the horse-boys and camp-servants to mount and form on the left wing, where they were to remain until the arrival of Pappenheim should supply their places with more efficient warriors. All these dispositions were made in the dead of night; and the two armies awaited the dawn of that bloody morning which should prove whether Gustavus was indebted for his previous successes to his own genius, or to the unskilfulness of his opponents. The day at length broke; but an impenetrable fog lay spread over the whole plain, and prevented any movement of the two armies until near midday. In front of the Swedish line, Gustavus Adolphus knelt down, and offered up his prayer to the god of battles, while the whole army raised Luther's battle-hymn, "A steadfast fortress is our God," the field-music of the different regiments playing a solemn accompaniment. The king then mounted his horse, with no defence but a buff-coat, the pain of a recent wound rendering the weight and pressure of his armour insupportable; and rode through the ranks, speaking cheerfully to the soldiers, and striving to inspire them with hopes which his own melancholy foreboding prevented him from feeling. "God with us," was the battle-cry of the Swedes; "Jesu Maria," that of the Imperialists. The fog in some measure dispersing about eleven o'clock, the two armies began to be visible to each other, and at the same moment the village of Lützen was discovered to be in flames, having been set on fire by order of the duke of Friedland, lest he should be outflanked on that side. Half an hour

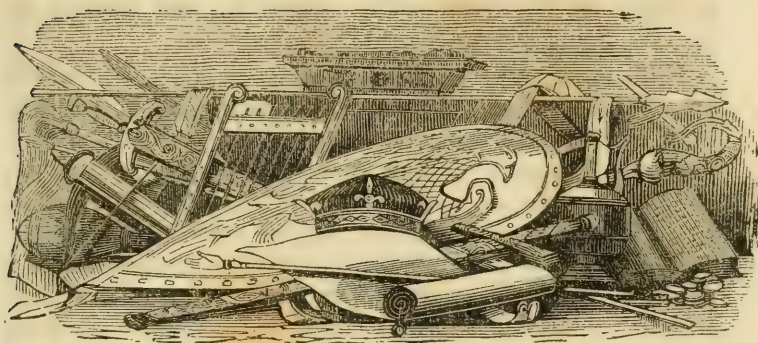
later Gustavus gave the signal of attack, and the Swedish infantry rushed forward to carry the trenches, but a murderous fire of artillery and small arms compelled them to retreat. The voice of Gustavus soon rallied them, and they fought with great fury, but without making any impression on the Imperialists, until Colonel Winkel, with a regiment of cavalry, forced his way across two of the trenches, followed by the Swedish body-guard. The battery was soon carried and the guns turned against the Imperialists,—then re-taken by Wallenstein,—and again carried by the Swedes, whose right wing was everywhere victorious, but their left, galled by the heavy fire from the windmill battery, was beginning to give way, when Gustavus rode forward for the purpose of rallying them. The swiftness of his horse rendering it impossible for the heavy cavalry to keep pace with their leader, he soon found himself almost alone in the midst of the enemy. Here a subaltern of the Imperial army, observing the respect with which the unknown officer was treated by his few followers, naturally concluded that he was a person of importance, and called out to a musketeer, “Shoot that man, for I am sure he is an officer of high rank.” The soldier immediately fired, and the king’s left arm fell powerless by his side. At this moment a wild cry was raised, “The king bleeds; the king is wounded.” “It is nothing,” shouted Gustavus; “follow me.” But the pain soon brought on faintness, and he desired the duke of Lauenburg, in French, to lead him out of the throng. While the duke was endeavouring to withdraw him without being noticed by the troops, a second shot struck Gustavus and deprived him of his little remaining strength. “I have enough, brother,” he said, in a feeble voice to the duke; “try to save your own life.” At the same moment he fell from his horse, and in a short time breathed his last. His horse, bathed in blood, and galloping wildly about the field, gave the first intimation to the Swedish cavalry that their king had fallen: a furious struggle for the recovery of his remains then took place between them and the Croats; and the disfigured corpse of Gustavus was soon buried beneath a heap of dead. Meanwhile, the sorrowful tidings had reached the main body, and goaded the Swedes almost to desperation. They fought with a fury which nothing could resist; and the enemy was already retreating, when Pap-

penheim appeared, and the battle began afresh. Nothing could exceed the fierceness of the second engagement. The Swedish yellow regiment, the flower of their army, lay dead, each man in his rank, without having yielded an inch of ground. Count Piccolomini, one of the Imperial generals, had seven horses shot under him, and received six wounds; but would not quit his post until the battle was decided. Wallenstein rode through the field like one bearing a charmed life; right and left his attendants fell, and his cloak was pierced through and through with bullets; yet he escaped unwounded, to fall at last by the hand of an assassin. Pappenheim received two shots in his breast and was carried out of the battle. Whilst they were conveying him to the rear a rumour, reached him that his great rival was slain. The countenance of the dying man brightened at this intelligence. "Tell the duke of Friedland," he said, "that I lie here without hope of life, but I die in peace, knowing that the enemy of my faith has also fallen." The mists of evening put an end to the fight. So little were the Swedes aware of the advantage which they had gained, that the question of an immediate retreat was seriously discussed between Bernard of Saxe Weimar and General Kniphausen; and great was their surprise when the light of morning made them aware that Wallenstein had withdrawn his troops and left them masters of the field. Had Pappenheim's reinforcement arrived a few hours earlier, the event would probably have been different; and even as it was, something might have been done to save the *matériel* of the army from falling into the enemy's hands; but Pappenheim's fall and the disabled condition of most of his men seem to have paralyzed the hitherto fearless spirit of Wallenstein; for leaving his artillery, his colours, and the greater part of his small arms on the field, he commenced a disorderly retreat towards Leipzig, and the next morning was followed by the miserable remnants of his army. He made, it is true, a feeble attempt to regain the ground, by sending out a body of Croats to hover round the scene of action; but the sight of the Swedish army, drawn up in good order between Lützen and Weissenfels, soon scared away these irregular skirmishers; and Bernard of Saxe Weimar, who succeeded Gustavus in command of the Swedes, retained undisturbed possession of the field. But the victory was dearly purchased. More than nine thou-

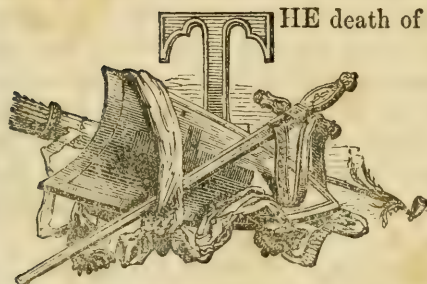
sand men lay dead on the field of battle: the whole plain, from Lützen to the canal, was strewed with the wounded and the dying; the bodies of knights and nobles were mingled with those of the common soldiers; and even an ecclesiastic, the Abbot of Fulda, whose zeal for his faith had brought him to the field as a spectator, paid the penalty of his rashness with his life. But the most melancholy feature of the Swedish triumph was the loss of him who had died to achieve it. For a long time the body of Gustavus Adolphus lay concealed under the heaps of nameless dead, who had fallen later in the day. At length it was discovered near a large stone between Lützen and the canal, covered with the most ghastly wounds, trampled on by the horses' hoofs, and stripped of its clothes and ornaments by the hands of those wretches who follow a camp for the sake of plunder. Tears streamed down the cheeks of the rough soldiers as they followed in melancholy procession the remains of him who had so often led them to victory; and, when the bereft widow embraced his corpse at Weissenfels, a dismal murmur ran through the ranks, like the wailing of children over the grave of a beloved father. The buff-coat of Gustavus, covered with blood, had been torn from his body by the plunderers, and found its way to Vienna, where it was exhibited to the emperor, who bursting into tears at the sight, exclaimed, "Gladly would I have allowed the unhappy man a longer life, and a joyful return to his country, if his death had not been necessary to the repose of Germany." Thus fell, in the thirty-eighth year of his age, Gustavus Adolphus, the great protector of Protestantism in Germany. Pappenheim died of his wounds at Leipzig the day after the battle. He had first distinguished himself at Prague, where, although severely wounded, and supported only by a few soldiers, he had put to flight a whole regiment of the enemy. As a second in command, he was excellent; but his wild chivalrous courage rendered him unfit for the chief direction of an army. Tilly always maintained that the battle of Leipzig was lost through his rashness. Like that ferocious leader, he had dyed his hands in blood at Magdeburg; but the habits of his early life were studious and refined, and foreign travel had improved his natural capacity. Unfortunately, however, the fierceness of his temper broke through all restraints on the day of battle. Superstition maintained that

this warlike character was stamped by nature on his brow; and it is certain that whenever violent passion caused the blood to rush into his face, two red lines appeared on his forehead, giving a strangely savage expression to the whole countenance. A messenger was on the way from Madrid to bring him the order of the Golden Fleece, when death rendered all worldly distinctions valueless.





DEATH OF WALLENSTEIN.



THE death of Gustavus Adolphus would have been fatal to the Protestant cause, had not the Swedish Chancellor Oxenstierna and duke Bernard of Saxe Weimar exerted themselves to repair the loss by assembling the German princes and representatives of cities at Heilbronn, where Oxenstierna was named head of the alliance in the room of his deceased master. The command of the army was divided between duke Bernard and General Horn; but the Swedes had lost much of that discipline which had rendered their character so estimable in Germany during the lifetime of Gustavus, and now committed acts of plunder and violence with as little scruple as the Imperialists. Some advantages were obtained by Bernard and his colleague; but the unfortunate city of Leipsic, having surrendered for the third time to the Imperialists, was sacked and pillaged by Wallenstein's general, Holk. The plague, which was raging at Leipsic, soon afterwards attacked the conqueror: and as he lay on his sick-bed, without hope of recovery, the stings of conscience became so insupportable that he offered six

hundred dollars to any one who would bring him a Lutheran minister. But all had either been murdered by his own order, or had concealed themselves so closely that the attempts of his officers to discover them were utterly fruitless.

While the Swedes were overrunning Germany, Wallenstein remained inactive with his army in Bohemia, until the desertion of some mercenary troops suggested to him the expediency of ascertaining exactly the temper of his men, by tendering his resignation to the emperor. The experiment succeeded. Most of the German troops remained faithful to their commander; and the principal officers, being invited to a banquet, signed a paper, in which they pledged themselves to support the duke of Friedland against any who should seek to disturb him in his command. It was afterwards pretended that the signature of these officers had been obtained by fraud, inasmuch as a paper containing the words "saving our duty to the emperor," which lay on the table at the beginning of the banquet, had been withdrawn when the guests were too drunk to detect the manœuvre, and another substituted, which pledged them simply and unconditionally to the support of their general. But this story, although universally believed in the days of Schiller, has been pronounced by modern historians to be an invention of Wallenstein's enemies, who hoped in some measure to justify their deed of blood, by representing the murdered man as a dishonoured traitor.

These proceedings of the duke of Friedland having been betrayed to the emperor by Ottavio Piccolomini, an officer who had insinuated himself into the general's confidence by false professions of friendship, an order for superseding Wallenstein in his command was forwarded from the Imperial court to General Gallas, who took care to communicate it to none but the foreign mercenary officers. Wallenstein, aware of this treachery, despatched messenger after messenger, with overtures of submission; but the vigilance of his enemies prevented their ever reaching Vienna: and the duke at length, hopeless of pardon, and abandoned by many of his officers, threw himself into Eger, (a strong fortress on the western frontier of Bohemia,) and now for the first time entered, it is said, into negotiations with the Swedes. But Bernard of Weimar, doubtful of his sincerity, received these advances coldly. "One who did not believe in

God," he said, "ought not to be trusted by men." Perhaps Wallenstein might eventually have succeeded in removing this unfavourable impression: but his hours were now numbered. On the 25th of February, 1633, Gordon, a Scotch soldier of fortune who commanded the garrison, and two mercenary officers named Butler and Leslie, the one Irish, the other Scotch, met at midnight in the citadel of Eger, and swore on the crosses of their swords, that they would put to death the duke of Friedland, Illo, Terzky, Kinski, and an officer of inferior rank named Neumann, all of whom were invited to an entertainment at the citadel on the following evening. This dark plot was communicated to three other Irishmen and two Italians; and an arrangement made that Geraldino, one of the Italians, and another officer named Deveroux, should conceal themselves with thirty men in a room adjoining the banqueting hall, whence they were to rush out at a given signal, and aid the other conspirators in their bloody work. At six o'clock in the evening of the 26th, all the doomed men, with the exception of Wallenstein, who excused himself on the plea of severe indisposition, entered the citadel of Eger, where they were received with affected cordiality by Gordon and his fellow conspirators: but no sooner had the last of them crossed the moat, than the drawbridge was raised, and the keys of the fortress placed in the hands of Leslie. Then followed one of those scenes with which the wild mercenaries of that day were but too familiar. Whilst the wine-cup passed from hand to hand, and the unsuspecting guests were drinking deeply to the health of their treacherous entertainers, a side door was suddenly thrown open, and Geraldino, at the head of six dragoons, armed with pikes and sabres, rushed towards the table, shouting in Italian, "*Viva la casa d'Austria!*" "*Long live the house of Austria!*" whilst from the opposite side a loud cry was heard, "*Who is on the emperor's side, who?*" and Deveroux with four-and-twenty soldiers marched into the hall. Gordon and Leslie then extinguished the lights, and the assassins falling on Kinski and Illo, despatched them before they could snatch their sabres from the wall: but Terzky, who had possessed himself of his sword during the first confusion, fought so desperately that two of the assailants were stretched dead at his feet, and many more wounded, before the assassins could effect their purpose. Neumann had rushed out at the

first appearance of danger, but being unacquainted with the conspirators' pass-word, was soon detected and put to death by the soldiers. The conspirators then proceeded to Wallenstein's quarters at the burgomaster's house, where they were admitted by the guard, in the belief that they were the bearers of some important communication to their general. As they ascended the staircase, one of the servants implored them not to disturb his lord, who, worn out by long watching and the pain of an imperfectly healed wound, had just fallen into an uneasy slumber. "This is the time for disturbance," shouted Deveroux in a voice of thunder; and striking the servant down, he passed on to the chamber of Wallenstein, and bursting open the door found himself in presence of his victim, who had risen from bed at the first alarm, and advanced to meet the intruders. "Art thou not," exclaimed the assassin, "the villain who would carry over our army to the Swedes, and pluck the crown from our emperor's head?" Wallenstein stretched out his arms without uttering a word, and Deveroux plunged a halberd into his breast. The body of the murdered man was then wrapped in a piece of tapestry, and conveyed to the citadel, whence it was afterwards removed to the duke's burial-place at Gitschin. Bernard of Weimar arrived soon afterwards and found Eger in possession of the Imperialists. The assassins Butler and Leslie were raised by the emperor to the rank of count, as having done good service to his cause. The landed possessions of Wallenstein were divided among his murderers; and what little remained of his personal property (for his false friend Piccolomini had appropriated the greater part to himself immediately after the duke's death) was distributed among the soldiers. As soon as the emperor received intelligence that his powerful general had ceased to live, he drew up and published a proclamation, in which an attempt was made to justify the murder. The character of Wallenstein was painted in the blackest colours: and acts which were afterwards proved by authentic documents to have been done with the consent and even at the suggestion of the emperor himself, were brought forward as proofs of his guilt. The whole of Wallenstein's army, with the exception of a few regiments, which went over to the Swedes or Saxons, remained faithful to the emperor, whose eldest son Ferdinand was appointed general-in-chief, and Gallas second in command.



BERNARD OF SAXE WEIMAR.

DEATH OF FERDINAND II. AND BERNARD OF SAXE WEIMAR—END OF THE THIRTY YEARS' WAR.

HAD Bernard of Saxe Weimar been able to avail himself of the first moments of confusion consequent on the death of Wallenstein, he might have found means to disperse the Imperial troops, which were in disorder for want of a leader. But the Swedes, jealous of the confidence reposed by Bernard in his German soldiers, refused to co-operate with him until it was too late. The consequence of this indecision was the loss of Ratisbon, which fell into the hands of the Imperialists before it could be relieved. This calamity was soon followed by a bloody de-

feat at Nördlingen, where the Protestants lost 16,000 men. In Swabia, the citizens of Augsburg, after subsisting for some time on the dead bodies of men and all sorts of garbage, were compelled to purchase their lives at the expense of all their property and to embrace the Romish religion. These disasters had the effect which might have been anticipated on the wavering counsels of the elector of Saxony, who, in the expectation that the emperor's cause would soon be triumphant, hastened to conclude a peace on the best terms that he could obtain. The electors of Brandenburg and Lüneburg followed his example; and a convention was signed at Prague, in which these princes pledged themselves, as the price of their restoration to the emperor's favour, to surrender to his tender mercies all their Protestant brethren in western and southern Germany. Meanwhile the emperor was not idle. Preparations were made on a large scale for continuing the war; and the dukedom of Franconia promised to Bernard of Saxe Weimar, on condition of his joining the Imperialists. Bernard saw that utter ruin to the Protestant cause would be the certain consequence of his abandoning it; but, on the other hand, the introduction of the French into Germany, which seemed the only resource left to the allies, was a measure full of danger to the liberties of his country. After a severe struggle, religious zeal prevailed over patriotism, and he refused the emperor's offer. In the year 1636, Bernard visited Paris, where he was honourably received by Louis XIII., and promises made to him in abundance, which were never fulfilled; for the French, notwithstanding the interest which they affected to take in the affairs of the German Protestants, were in reality only desirous that the two parties should wear each other out in a long struggle, when it would be easy for a French army to enter Germany and satisfy their ambitious cravings. Bernard returned to his camp, and soon afterwards, during the bombardment of Zabern, narrowly escaped death from a ball, which shattered his bed to atoms. A remarkable change had taken place in his character. Formerly he had allowed his soldiers the most unlimited license; but, during his residence at Paris, the queen, Anne of Austria, having implored him for her sake to have mercy on the weaker sex, Bernard promised faithfully to obey her commands, and so strictly kept his word, that the nuns of Remberville, surprised

and delighted at a forbearance so uncommon in those days, overwhelmed him with expressions of gratitude, and presented him with a sword-belt of exquisite workmanship. While the war was proceeding thus languidly, an episode was enacted worthy the brightest days of chivalry. The Infant of Spain and Piccoluomini having invaded France, Richelieu had sent a force to repulse them. While the two enemies lay in their encampments at Liège, General von Werth determined on his own responsibility to lead the cavalry of Piccoluomini to the very gates of Paris. Desperate as the attempt seemed, it was fully successful. The French troops fled before him, cities opened their gates, and the magistrates on bended knees presented their keys to the invader. Paris was panic-struck; and Werth might easily have made himself master of the place had not his troopers wasted time in plundering the surrounding country. This delay enabled Cardinal Richelieu to arm and send against the enemy all the disposable troops; but it was not until the autumnal rains brought sickness into his camp that the chivalrous invader abandoned his design, and rejoined the Imperial army. In the year 1637, the aged emperor died. Almost the last act of a life which had been one long display of ferocious cruelty, was to order the drowning of some insurgents in Carinthia, and the infliction of horrible tortures on the peasants of Upper Austria. Few sovereigns have left behind them a more odious name. Under the cloak of religious zeal, he sent fire and sword through his native land; and that not so much from an honest conviction that the tenets of the Romish faith were true, as from an anxious desire to establish, at whatever cost of human suffering, the detestable principle "*cujus regio, ejus religio*," which both Romanist and Protestant sovereigns had been too ready to assert from time to time since the days of Luther. Heretics were therefore to be exterminated, not because their doctrines were damnable, but because those who presumed to differ from their sovereign were in his eyes guilty of rebellion. More than ten millions of human beings were sacrificed to this unjust and cruel policy. The Jesuits had impressed upon him the devilish maxim, that a land had better lie waste than harbour heretics and rebels; and on this principle he had acted through life, and reduced the fair plains and fields of Germany to the condition of a howling wilderness,

through which dissolute soldiers and half-starved miserable peasants, in whose breasts famine and suffering had extinguished the feelings of humanity, wandered like fiends, ready to devour alike friends and foes. The year in which the emperor died a frightful famine was added to the other horrors of war. So ghastly was this visitation, that men, to save their lives, disinterred and devoured the bodies of their fellow-creatures, and even hunted down human beings that they might feed on their flesh. The effect of this unnatural and loathsome diet was a pestilence, which swept away the soldiery as well as the people by thousands. In Pomerania, hundreds destroyed themselves, as unable to endure the pangs of hunger. On the island of Rügen many poor creatures were found dead with their mouths full of grass, and in some districts attempts were made to knead earth into bread. Throughout Germany, the license of war and the misery consequent on famine and pestilence had so utterly destroyed the morality which was once the pride and boast of this land, that the people, a few years before the most simple and kind-hearted in Europe, now vied with the foreign mercenaries who infested their country in setting at naught the laws of God as well as of man. "Germany," says Betkius, in his "*Excidium Germaniæ*," "lieth in the dust. Shame is her portion, and poverty and sickness of heart. The curse of God is on her, because of her cruelties, and blasphemies, and bloodshed. Ten thousand times ten thousand souls, the spirits of innocent children butchered in this unholy war, cry day and night unto God for vengeance, and cease not: while those who have caused all these miseries live in peace and freedom; and the shouts of revelry and the voice of music are heard in their dwellings." Ferdinand was succeeded on the imperial throne by his son Ferdinand III. Towards the end of this year, (1637,) Bernard of Saxe Weimar a second time visited Paris, and, being supported by the confidential agent of Oxenstierna, (the renowned Hugo Grotius, then an exile from Holland,) succeeded in obtaining from the French government a sum of money sufficient to pacify his starving soldiery, who were committing horrible ravages in Champagne. In the following year, the Protestants made themselves masters of the strong fortress of Breisach, during the siege of which Bernard, although lying sick of a fever, sprang from his bed, and, mount-

ing his charger, put to flight a body of the enemy who were coming to the relief of the place. Bernard's last hour was now approaching ; and he seems to have had a melancholy foreboding of his death. "I am weary of my life," said he, after his soldiers, contrary to his express commands, had plundered a town which had fallen into his hands, "for I can no longer continue with a safe conscience amidst such lawless proceedings." And, when the people thronged to pay homage to him on the road, he exclaimed, "I fear it will be with me as it was with the king of Sweden—as soon as the people honoured him more than God, he died." A few days later he was seized with an incurable illness, which he himself believed to be the effect of poison. They brought him by easy stages to Neuburg, where he died on the 8th July, 1639. "Germany," writes Grotius, "lost in him her ornament and her last hope ; in a word, almost the only man who was worthy the name of a German prince." Rumour almost universally attributed his death to the French ; although there were not wanting some who accused the emperor of having poisoned him, and a few who believed that he died of fever. Thus was the Protestant cause a second time deprived of its head. Like his great master Gustavus Adolphus, Bernard died in the flower of his age, and was followed like him to the grave by the lamentations of those whom he had so often led to victory. In person, he was well formed, with long hair flowing over his shoulders in a manner which would have given him an appearance of effeminacy, but for the expression of his marked and sun-burnt features. Religion and war were the occupations of his life. Every day he devoted several hours to the study of the Bible, which he knew almost by heart. Only two regiments of his army wore uniforms ; the rest were dressed in such clothes as they could obtain, and presented a wild and motley appearance. On their standard they bore the inscription "*Perque enses perque ignes,*" (through sword and fire ;) or, "*Fortiter agere et pati Bernardinum est,*" (to do and to suffer bravely is the part of Bernard's followers.) They carried their swords always naked, having no sheath for them, as we are told, but the bodies of their enemies. After Bernard's death, the war was carried on for nine years longer, during which Generals Banner, Torstenson, and Wrangel succeeded one another in command of the Protestant army ; and the

Imperial general Gallas was replaced by a renegade Calvinist named Melander von Holzapfel. The last event of this long and disastrous war was the taking of Prague by the Swedish general Königsmark. On the 24th of October, 1648, articles of peace were signed at Münster and Osnabrück in Westphalia. The emperor agreed to pay the Swedes five millions of dollars as an indemnification for the expenses of the war, and to deliver up to them the bishoprics of Bremen and Verden, the island of Rügen, and the greater part of Pomerania. The French were to continue in possession of Metz, Toul, and Verdun, and the whole of Alsace, except Strasburg, instead of which they were to occupy Breisach, and the fortress of Philipsburg, the keys of Upper Germany. Peace was at the same time concluded between Spain and Holland, and the independence of the United Provinces fully recognised. Romanists and Protestants were now placed in all respects on an equal footing. All ecclesiastical property which had been appropriated by Protestants was to remain in their hands. The emperor conceded this point, partly because it would have been hopeless to oppose it, and partly because he began himself to be aware of the advantages to be gained by robbing the church of her possessions. The Lutherans and Calvinists had now the good sense to lay aside their disputes, and to obtain the abrogation of that foolish and wicked law which would compel every subject to follow the religion of his sovereign. Thus terminated the Thirty Years' War, during which the best and bravest of the land had fallen victims to the ambition of their own princes, or died in fighting against the oppressors of their country. Like one who has been snatched from the deadly fangs of a serpent, Germany lay rescued indeed, but torn and exhausted; while the blood which should have circulated cheerily through her veins, communicating nourishment and health, had either been drained in the conflict, or crept through her system, mingled with a poison which was corrupting her juices, and threatening eventually to deprive her of existence.



LOUIS XIII.

ACCESSION OF LOUIS XIII. OF FRANCE.



HE young king of France, Louis XIII., son of Henry IV., who succeeded to the throne on the horrid event of his father's assassination, was not yet nine years old. The parliament, as we have already said, immediately conferred the regency on his mother, Mary of Medicis, a woman not less bigoted in her devotion to

Rome than the former queen-mother of that family. The character of Mary, however, is wholly unstained with the imputation of any such bloody crimes as those for which Catherine is universally execrated. She was entirely under the influence of two Florentine adventurers, a man of the name of Concini, whom she made Maréchal d'Ancre, and his wife Leonora de Galigai. The rapid and extraordinary elevation of these favourites excited almost universal discontent. It is said of Concini, that to repress the murmurs of the people, by showing

them what fate they might expect if they dared to censure him, he had several gibbets erected in different parts of Paris. Such means as this of stifling the expression of public feeling are seldom for the safety of those who adopt them.

On the 3d of October, 1611, died the duc de Mayenne. His death at this time was accounted a great loss to France. He was a man of integrity, and from the time of his reconciliation to Henry IV. had never embarked in any intrigues of state; and it has been thought, that, if he had lived, he might have been able to check the civil dissensions which ensued. These dissensions were greatly owing to the ambitious desire of some of the princes of the blood, and others of the great nobility, to take advantage of the distractions of a new reign, and of a feeble minority, to establish their own power and independence. The duc de Mayenne, on his death-bed, charged his son to remain firm in his principles of religion and loyalty, and only on that condition gave him his blessing.

One of the first objects of Mary of Medicis, and her favourites, was to unite themselves as closely as possible with the court of Spain. In the year 1612 were announced two intended marriages, the one between the young king Louis XIII. and the infanta, Anne of Austria, daughter of the king of Spain; and the other, between the princess Elizabeth, the king's sister, and the prince of Spain, afterwards Philip IV. These marriages took place by proxy, the one at Burgos in Spain, and the other at Bordeaux, on the same day, Oct. 18, 1615, and the two princesses were exchanged in the isle of Pheasants, in the river Bidassoa, in the November following. The infanta was then conducted to Bordeaux, and the king meeting her on the way, they made together a solemn entry into that city.

In the mean time, the prince of Condé (Henry II.) and other princes and nobles joined with the Protestants in opposition to the queen. A war broke out, and the Swiss Protestants in the king's pay quitted the service, and returned home, because they would not act against their brethren of the same religion. These troubles were for a time composed in 1617, by the entire downfall of the queen and her party. A courtier of the name of De Luynes excited in the mind of the king, who was now about sixteen years of age, a jealousy of his mother and of her favourites, and proposed to him, that Vitry, a cap-



ASSASSINATION OF MARECHAL D'ANGRE.



tain of the guards, should have the royal authority to arrest Maréchal d'Ancre. The king agreed, and Vitry, at the head of a body of ruffians, who, it may be suspected, were marked out for this employment, because something more than a mere arrest was intended, took an opportunity of arresting his victim on the bridge of the Louvre, and, on the maréchal's putting his hand to his sword, had him instantly killed by his followers. The king, on being informed of this transaction by Vitry himself, exclaimed, "Grand merci à vous ! à cette heure je suis roi ;" and made him immediately maréchal of France. The body of Concini, which had been carried off, and buried immediately after his death, was that very evening taken out of its grave by a mob of footmen and "pages." It was then dragged through the streets, and afterwards cut in pieces, some of which were hung on the gibbets which he had himself erected in order to frighten his enemies. His wife Leonora was beheaded by order of the parliament. She was interrogated during her trial, what sorcery she had used to acquire her great ascendancy over the mind of the queen. "I have used none," she answered, "except that ascendancy which strong minds have over the weak." The queen-mother herself was exiled to Blois, from whence she made her escape to Angoulême. Soon after she had an interview with Louis at Tours, and came to a sort of accommodation with him. The reconciliation, however, did not last long, and she was at one time at actual war with her son. To conclude at once all we need say of her history, we may here add, that she was again reconciled to him ; but that a final breach ensued in 1630. She fled to Bruxelles in 1631, and, after many sufferings from neglect and vexation, died at Cologne, July 3, 1642.



RICHELIEU.

RISE OF CARDINAL RICHELIEU.



ON the king's approach to maturity, strong hopes were for a time entertained that he would show some portion of his father's energy of character. But though personally brave, and, like many weak men, often ready to authorize very decisive and violent measures, he possessed no power of self-government and control, and was always, through his whole life, a mere puppet played on by the hands of others.

M. de Luynes first assumed over the young monarch the dominion which the Concinis had exercised over the queen. De Luynes was a man of a proud and grasping temper, but wholly unequal to restrain the ambition of the princes of the blood, and other nobles, who indulged themselves with impunity in all sorts of disorders, and even sometimes committed hostilities against the crown. De Luynes died Dec. 15, 1621. It has been observed of the court of France at this period, that not any one person of eminence was to be found in it, who could properly be entitled a man of honour or worth. Pride and baseness, qualities very often united, appeared to be almost the

universal characteristic, and the only ability which was either possessed or valued was the ability to corrupt and betray.

At the death of De Luynes, the celebrated Armand du Plessis Richelieu, bishop of Luçon, and soon afterwards created cardinal, was rising rapidly into distinction. He was a man of great abilities, and of consummate intrigue and artifice. He had been first brought forward by the unfortunate Concini, and afterwards attached himself to the new favourite De Luynes. He was for some time about the person of the queen-mother, over whom he had great influence. He is said to have perfidiously abandoned her interests, as soon as he saw that he could advance his own by forsaking her. At all events, he acquired a greater degree of power than any minister had before possessed in France, and from the date of his admission into the royal council in 1624, to his death, is to be accounted the sole efficient ruler of France. He reminds us in some respects of Cardinal Wolsey, but was incomparably more crafty and artful. He accumulated in his own hands a great number of church benefices, but gave his whole attention to affairs of state. He was fond, to an extreme, of display and magnificence, and even assumed the dress and arms of a soldier, and the personal direction of military affairs. The cardinal de la Valette, archbishop of Toulouse, followed in this respect the example of Richelieu. He commanded some troops in Italy, and died with arms in his hands.

Cardinal Richelieu is generally spoken of with applause and respect by French historians, as having laid the foundations of the *greatness* of the monarchy, and of the glory which it acquired in the succeeding reign. He finally extinguished the excessive power of the aristocracy, who have never since his time been able to contend with the crown. He almost wholly suppressed also those religious wars by which the kingdom had been so long fatally distracted. But this he did by depriving the Huguenots of their just rights as subjects, rights which had been guaranteed to them by the most solemn treaties. He also depressed that pre-eminence of the house of Austria, which the gallant virtues of Francis I. and Henry IV. had in vain attempted to overrule.

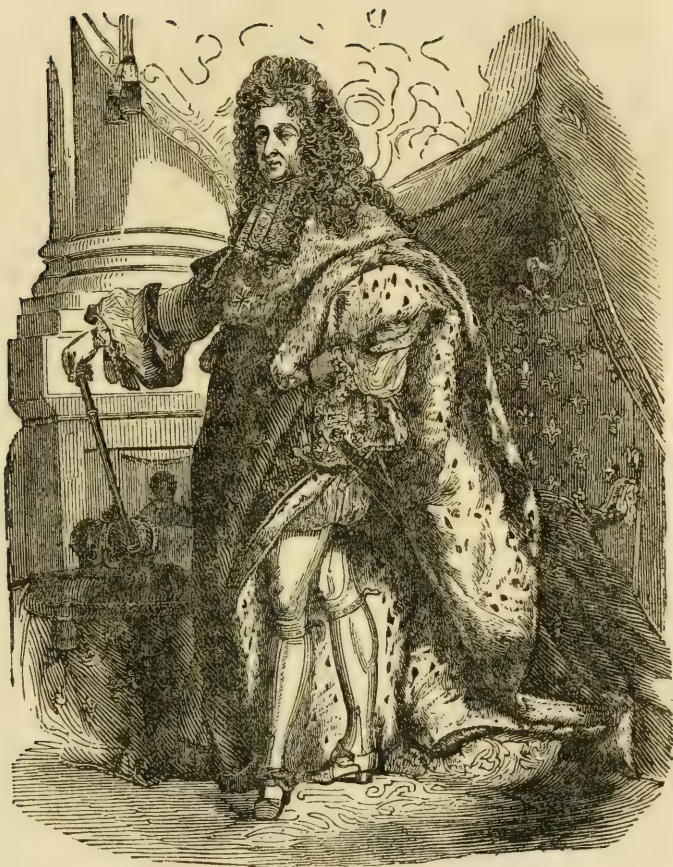
DEATH OF RICHELIEU AND LOUIS XIII., AND ACCESSION OF LOUIS XIV.



IN the year 1642, the chief efforts of the French in the Spanish War were carried into Rousillon, in order to aid a revolt which the inhabitants of Catalonia had made against Spain. Louis himself conducted his army into that quarter, and undertook the siege of Perpignan. Richelieu, who was to have accompanied him, was compelled by illness to stop at Narbonne. Louis returned to Paris, where he was again joined by the cardinal, who, after lingering some time, died Dec. 4, 1642, leaving many of his vast designs incomplete, and a name more brilliant than beloved or honoured.

Perpignan had in the mean time fallen before the French arms, and the war was prosecuted with vigour and success. But it was the fate of Louis soon to rejoin his ambitious minister in that solitary mansion where neither greatness nor glory, unless purchased by truly virtuous exertions, is permitted to follow the short career of human life. A slow fever hung on him, and he felt his strength decay.

The dauphin was at this time not five years old, and the king, in the hope to secure a tranquil minority, endeavoured to provide for the distribution of his power in a manner which should attain this end effectually. He appointed the queen, Anne of Austria, sole regent. The duke of Orleans was declared head of the council and lieutenant-general throughout the kingdom; and it was also provided that all affairs should be decided by a majority of voices in council. Both the queen and the duke of Orleans solemnly swore to adhere inviolably to this arrangement; and Louis, to secure still more certainly its fulfilment, commanded the deed enacting it to be registered in parliament.



LOUIS XIV.

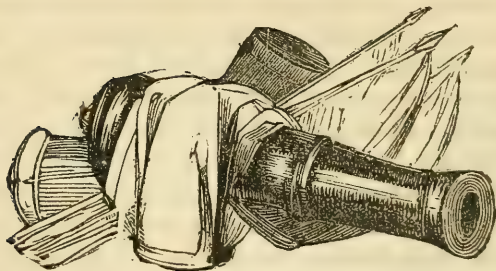
This being done, he prepared for death with composure. Before he died, he earnestly desired his physician to tell him exactly how long he had to live; and when he was told that he could not live more than two or three hours, he testified the greatest satisfaction, and added, "Well, my God! I consent with all my heart." He died May 14, 1643, in the forty-second year of his age, and on the day on which he completed the thirty-third of his reign.

No sooner was the king dead than his will was openly violated. Anne of Austria, having previously gained over to her interests the duke of Orleans and the prince of Condé, assembled the parliament on the 18th of May, and procured a formal arrêt which gave her the choice of the council, and invested her with all real authority. She was herself governed in all things by Cardinal Mazarin, a native of the little town of Piscina in the Abruzzo in Italy, whose political address had introduced him to Richelieu, and who now became the leading minister in France.

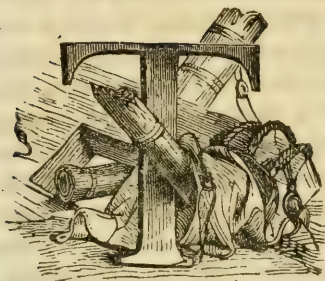
The army in Flanders, at the time of the young king's accession, was under the command of Louis of Bourbon duc d'Enghien, son of the prince of Condé, and himself afterwards known in history by the name of "the great Condé." On receiving the news of the late king's death, this young prince, who was only twenty-two years of age, received orders not to risk a battle. A battle, however, being necessary for the relief of Rocroi, which the Spaniards were besieging with a larger army than his own, he ventured to disobey these orders, and on the 19th of May fought the battle of Rocroi, in which he gained a decisive victory. In this battle he charged with horse the Spanish infantry, which had been till now deemed invincible, and, after charging three times, broke their ranks. The count of Fuentes, their commander, perished on the field. After this great victory, he besieged and took Thionville, and afterwards carried the war into Germany. In August, 1644, he fought another battle at Friburg, and took Philipsburg and Mentz, and several forts on the Rhine. At the end of the campaign, he returned to Paris, leaving the command of his army to Maréchal Turenne. Turenne was surprised by the enemy and defeated, May, 1645, at Mariendahl. The duc d'Enghien instantly returned to the army, and gained another great victory

on the 3d of August, at Nordlingen. One of the enemy's generals, General Merci, was among the slain. His body was interred near the field of battle; and on his tomb was engraved the short but expressive inscription: "Sta, viator, heroem calcas."—Stop, traveller, you tread upon a hero.

Meanwhile, in Flanders, the duke of Orleans reduced Grave-lines, Mardyke, and some other towns. On October 10, 1646, the duc d'Enghien made the conquest of the important fortress of Dunkirk, which surrendered to him in sight of the Spanish army. The duc d'Enghien's father died December 26, and from this time we are to call him prince of Condé. In 1647, Mazarin, envious of his glory, detached him into Catalonia with too slender a force to allow of his effecting there any thing considerable. But, in the following year, the archduke Leopold having entered Flanders, and recovered several of the places which had been reduced in the preceding campaigns, it was deemed expedient to send Condé to oppose him. The prince took Ypres, and marched to the relief of Lens, which, to his great mortification, surrendered in his sight. This mortification, however, was soon effaced in the decisive battle of Lens which followed, in which the enemy's forces were totally destroyed or dispersed. Since the foundation of the monarchy, the French had never gained so many successive victories, nor displayed so much conduct or courage.



THE WAR OF THE FRONDE.



HE war with the emperor was terminated this year by a peace signed at Munster on the 24th of October, in which several important cessions were made to France. Peace was also restored between Spain and the Dutch provinces, in which the independ-

ence of these provinces was at last acknowledged, after a contest which had lasted fourscore years. Spain was thus at liberty to direct her whole force against France ; and in France itself, also, civil dissensions arose, which facilitated the progress of the Spanish arms.

The unpopularity of Mazarin was the chief occasion of these dissensions. The distress of the finances, which had been much increased by the long war, drove that minister to attempt to procure money by many unjust and impolitic methods. The parliament of Paris refused to register the edicts which were issued for the purpose of raising supplies. In consequence of this refusal, one of its members was arrested. On this the populace flew to arms, shut up the shops, and barricaded the streets. Several affrays, attended with much bloodshed, took place. The chancellor was attacked as he was going to the parliament for the purpose of annulling its arrêts. He was obliged to take flight, and several of his attendants were killed. His daughter-in-law, the duchess of Sully, who was in the carriage with him, received a wound in her arm. Sanson, the son of the celebrated geographer, who was also in the carriage, was mortally wounded. This was the commencement of the disturbances commonly called *the Fronde*:—from the

French verb *fronder*, to censure, or browbeat; and hence the word *frondeur*, which has often been used to denote a person of a party opposed to the government.

These disturbances were aggravated by the famous Cardinal de Retz, a man of very bustling and perturbing abilities, and of very profligate morals and politics, who having been, much against his will, placed by his family in the church, was now *coadjuteur* to the archbishop of Paris. He appears at first to have tried to conciliate the two parties, for the purpose, apparently, of improving his interest with the court; but this attempt failing, he set himself at the head of the Fronde, chiefly, it is supposed, through his sheer love of intrigue, and the vanity of making himself head of a party, and of exercising his skill in artifice and cabal. Nor must we forget to mention the duchess de Longueville, a lady of a very masculine spirit, who was one of the chief promoters of these dissensions. The "day of the barricades" was the 26th August, 1648. On the following day the barricades were removed, the shops re-opened, and affairs to all appearance resumed a peaceable aspect.

The queen, however, thinking Paris no place of safety, fled to St. Germain en Laye, accompanied by her children, by Cardinal Mazarin, the duke of Orleans, and the prince of Condé. Here she was obliged to pledge the jewels of the crown to obtain money. The king himself was often in want of necessities. Most of the court were obliged to sleep upon straw, and the pages of the bed-chamber were dismissed, from absolute inability to supply them with food. Henrietta Maria also, the king's aunt, daughter of Henry IV. and wife of Charles I. of England, who had fled for refuge to her native country, was reduced on this occasion to the extremest wretchedness; and her daughter, afterwards duchess of Orleans, is said to have been compelled to lie in bed for want of means to procure a fire. The court, in conformity with that cheerful or perhaps flippant humour which has always enabled the French to turn misfortune into a subject for pleasantry, consoled itself under these vexations by making a jest of the Parisians, whose inexpertness in the military art furnished a perpetual theme of ridicule. Songs and epigrams were for a time a great part of the contest. At last the king's army, under the command of the prince of Condé, invested Paris, and several conflicts took place. Many



268 ANNE OF AUSTRIA SHOWING THE KING TO THE FRONDEURS.

of the great nobles had joined the Fronde and the parliament; but scarcely any one of them appeared to be influenced by any better motive than the desire of personal aggrandizement. They joined the Fronde that they might be bought over by the government, either by money or places, or by the hand of some rich heiress; and when they had got what they wanted, were always ready to change again. The great Condé was quite as unprincipled as the rest.

A sort of peace was made in the spring of 1649, and in August the court returned to Paris. The intriguing De Retz for a time reconciled himself to the court, that he might so purchase his elevation to the rank of cardinal, which was soon afterwards conferred on him. The prince of Condé became discontented, and incurred the displeasure of Mazarin, and was imprisoned first at Vincennes, and afterwards at Havre. In February, 1651, the prince was released, and Mazarin sent into exile. Upon this, a report was raised that the queen was about to follow him with her son, and a new outbreak was the consequence. In order to appease the malcontents, it became necessary for Anne of Austria to admit some of the citizens into her chamber, to satisfy them that the king was still there. Several of the populace were accordingly admitted, when, drawing the bed-curtains, she proved that the alarm created was unfounded, by showing them the young king fast asleep.

Condé returned to Paris; but in the latter part of the same year retired into Guienne, of which province he was governor, and there set up the standard of revolt. Mazarin soon afterwards returned to court and to power. The court was at this time removed to Poitiers, whence it was obliged afterwards to retreat before Condé, who had been joined by a great number of nobles, and who was reinforced also by a body of troops from Spain.

Maréchal Turenne, who, after having attached himself to the Fronde, was now come over to the court party, possessed the command of the royal army. Condé, after gaining a victory at Blenau, advanced to Paris in the month of April, 1652. Turenne pursued him, and a severe action was fought in the suburb of St. Antoine, but with little advantage on either side. Many tumults and assassinations took place in the city, where the great obstacle to the restoration of the royal autho-

rity appears to have been the extreme dislike entertained for Mazarin. This dislike the king, who had now attained his majority, found it altogether beyond his power to overrule, and this obnoxious minister was again sent into exile on the 12th of August, 1652. Immediately after his departure, a deputation from the citizens went to the king, and entreated him to return to his capital. This accordingly he did, and tranquillity was restored. The duke of Orleans, who in this last contest had taken part with the prince of Condé, was banished to Blois, where he passed the rest of his life. Cardinal de Retz was arrested in the Louvre, and conveyed from prison to prison; while the prince of Condé himself, pressed by Turenne, and feebly supported by the Spaniards, was reduced to wage on the frontiers of Champagne a petty and unsuccessful war.

Such was the termination of this war of the Fronde. From this time Louis exercised an undisputed prerogative. The country was no longer distracted by faction. The arrogance of the nobles was again reduced within those limits which the policy of Richelieu had dictated. Arts and architecture, and all the splendour of this long reign, date their origin from this epoch of restored domestic tranquillity.





CHARLES I.

ACCESSION OF CHARLES I. AND DEATH OF
THE DUKE OF BUCKINGHAM.

CHARLES was in the twenty-fifth year of his age when he ascended the throne. His features were regular, and he would have been handsome, if it had not been for the melancholy cast of his countenance. His deportment was exceedingly dignified. In the morality and regularity of his conduct he set a good example to his court and people: he was moderate in all his habits and his expenses, humane and gentle in his disposition, was a man of kind affections, and a most tender husband and father.

Charles's mind was cultivated, but he seldom acted as wisely as he could talk, and was often swayed by the counsels of men of far inferior capacity. His temper was somewhat hasty, but he was generous and forgiving. With all Charles's good qualities, he had unfortunately imbibed some prejudices of education that proved fatal to him as a king. He had too high an idea of his royal prerogative, and, with every desire to do right, had not the smallest notion of the true principles of government or policy.

From the very commencement of the new reign, much popular dissatisfaction prevailed, chiefly because the king surrendered himself entirely to the control of Buckingham, who, implacable in his hatreds, fickle in his friendships, imperious and grasping in his desires, was regarded with universal dislike.

The king's marriage with Henrietta Maria, sister to the king of France, was also very displeasing to the people, principally because she was a Papist, and their religious feelings were shocked at her being allowed to exercise publicly her own form of worship. She also offended the more serious part of the nation, by the change her elegance and gayety wrought in the

manners of the court ; and the Puritans found less to dislike in the homely vulgarity of the late Queen Anne of Denmark than in the grace and beauty of Henrietta.

It was a great error in James, and one into which Charles also fell, to be occupied with *abstract speculations*, that is, with thoughts of matters which did not concern his own business and duties, and not to see what passed under his eyes. Thus, while James was writing books on kingly government, he never perceived that the House of Commons was no longer that subservient body it had been in all former reigns, but that it had at last found out its own strength, and that, from being the slave of kings, it was now able to be their ruler.

Charles also had been equally blind to this change, and was not aware of the difficulties which he was bringing on himself by his rash treatment of this great organ of the popular voice. The first year of his reign was spent by him in making attempts to extend his authority, and by the Commons in trying to curb it. Provoked by this opposition, Charles hastily dissolved the parliament ; and thus the king and the Commons parted in mutual disgust and animosity, and, when the new parliament assembled, they met with feelings of suspicion and dislike.

Charles, by the persuasion of Buckingham, plunged into a war with France, (A. D. 1627,) and sent some troops to the relief of the French Huguenots at Rochelle. Buckingham had the command of this expedition, which was ill-planned and unskilfully executed ; and in an attempt to land on the Isle of Rhé, he was repulsed with great loss. Another expedition for the relief of Rochelle was fitted out in 1628, and Buckingham went to Portsmouth to survey the preparations.

At the same time with the duke a man by the name of Felton arrived at Portsmouth, a Puritan of a melancholy and enthusiastic turn of mind, who, hearing the universal complaints that were made against the favourite, persuaded himself that he should do his country a service by destroying him. His chief motive, however, was probably that of private resentment, at having been disappointed in his own hopes of promotion in the army.

Felton for some days followed the duke like his shadow, but without having an opportunity to effect his purpose. At last, as Buckingham was passing through a door-way, and turning to

speak to Sir Thomas Fryer, who was following him, an arm was suddenly stretched over Sir Thomas's shoulder, which struck a knife into the duke's breast. All this passed in an instant. No one saw the blow, nor the person who gave it; but the bystanders heard Buckingham exclaim, "The villain has killed me!" and saw him pull the knife from the wound, and fall dead at their feet.

The confusion and alarm at this moment were very great, and every one rushed forwards in search of the murderer. He was rescued with some difficulty from the violence of the bystanders, who would have put him to death with their swords. Felton was afterwards tried and executed.



COSTUME OF REIGN OF CHARLES I.

CHARLES'S WAR WITH SCOTLAND—FALL OF STRAFFORD.



AFTER the death of Buckingham, Charles placed his chief confidence in Sir Thomas Wentworth, afterwards Lord Strafford, and in Laud, archbishop of Canterbury. The first was a man of great talents and of a strong and unbending mind, but, unfortunately for himself and his master, his political opinions would have better suited the despotic times of the Plantagenets than the reign in which he was placed.

The supplies which the parliament had granted since Charles's accession had been both scanty and grudgingly given; and the late king, by his unthrifty management, had left the treasury in such an exhausted state, that his son, though frugal and regular, soon found himself greatly embarrassed, and wanted money to defray the necessary expenses of the government.

Charles had been provoked, by the unbending sturdiness of the Commons, to dissolve the parliament a second time; and he now declared a determination to govern without one: but he was no gainer by this imprudent step, for his necessities soon drove him to procure money by many arbitrary and unjustifiable means.

The exactions of the Star Chamber were enforced with great severity. A duty called tonnage and poundage, which had been heretofore given to the reigning monarch as an especial grant from the parliament, Charles took upon himself to levy on his own authority. He also imposed a tax called ship-money, for the express purpose of maintaining the navy. But though the money was employed for the purpose for which it was demanded, and the navy put into a more serviceable condition than it had long been in, still, as it was considered an illegal tax, the people were highly irritated at its being levied.

Things were in this state in England, when Charles, with an

indiscreet zeal, tried to introduce episcopacy with the liturgy of the church of England into Scotland; but the Scots, instead of submitting to change their own Presbyterian form of worship, drew up a protestation, binding themselves to resist all religious innovation. This protestation they called the Covenant, and every person, from one end of Scotland to the other, was required to sign it.

A number of these covenanters next formed themselves into an army, and placed themselves under the command of the earl of Argyle, seized on some of the king's castles, and hastily fortified the town of Leith. All ranks were so much inflamed by party zeal, that even ladies were seen mixing with the lowest rabble, carrying loads upon their shoulders, and assisting to complete the fortifications.

The king, to quell these disturbances, marched an army to Berwick, and negotiations were begun between him and the covenanters. Charles's visible unwillingness to make his native land, to which he was so much attached, a scene of bloodshed, only served to encourage the Scots in their unyielding spirit. He was soon obliged to disband his troops for want of money to continue their pay, and he made many concessions to the Scots to induce them to return to their homes in peace.

This the Scots pretended to do, but they soon after appeared again in arms; and, in 1640, Charles found himself in such a distressed condition, that, after an interval of eleven years, he once more summoned a parliament, in hopes it would grant him some assistance. But, as soon as the Commons met, instead of paying any attention to the king's affairs, it immediately entered on its own grievances.

This parliament, after it had sat only a few months, the king, in a moment of irritation, dissolved. This measure he had afterwards but too much reason to repent. His necessities were now so great, that he was obliged to borrow money of his ministers and courtiers. With the greatest difficulty he raised a body of troops, which he sent against the Scots, who were advanced almost to Newcastle. The two armies met at Newburn, and Charles's troops were defeated. He was thus reduced to greater difficulties than ever, and, as a desperate resource, once more summoned a parliament.

The late events had not tended to put the Commons in better

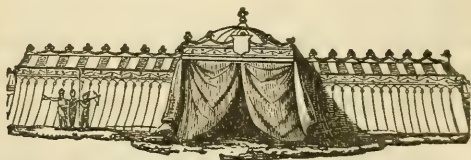
humour with the king or his ministers ; and their first measure was to impeach Strafford, who, having been formerly a Puritan, was more particularly obnoxious to that party, one of whom, Pym, an active leader in the House, had formerly said to him, "You have left us, but we will not leave you while your head is on your shoulders." And they so well remembered and kept their word, that he was brought to trial and condemned to death.

The king, knowing that Strafford's greatest fault in the eyes of the people was his attachment to himself, could not at first bring himself to assent to the *bill of attainder* that was passed against him, although the queen and some of his other advisers besought him to make that sacrifice to the public outcry. Juxon, bishop of London, alone advised him by no means to assent to the bill, if his conscience did not approve of it.

Strafford himself wrote to the king, entreating him, for the sake of public peace, no longer to defer his assent to it, and ended his letter thus :—"My consent will more acquit you to God than all the world can do besides. To you I can resign the life of this world with all imaginable cheerfulness."

Strafford perhaps thought that this letter would rather plead for his life than against it, and he seemed greatly surprised, and for the moment overcome, when he was informed that the king had actually consented to his execution. But he might have pitied rather than have blamed him, could he have known how much present grief and after remorse he endured, from allowing his consent to the death of his faithful friend and servant to be thus extorted from him.

Charles, unwilling to give a personal assent to the bill which deprived him of his valued servant, sent a letter to the Peers, entreating them to confer with the Commons, for a mitigation of the sentence, or at least to obtain some delay. But the enemies of Strafford were inexorable, and he was executed May 12th, 1641.





BATTLE OF EDGEHILL.

COMMENCEMENT OF THE CIVIL WAR IN ENGLAND.



It will be impossible to enter into every particular of the unhappy differences between the king and the Commons. (A. D. 1642.) Each party becoming more and more incensed, and things being likely to proceed to extremities, the king withdrew to York, taking with him his two eldest sons, Charles and James.

At York the chief nobility and gentry of the kingdom flocked to him, offering their services, and expressing their duty and attachment; for, now that it was become an open quarrel, many

who had shown a disapprobation of his former measures condemned the violence of the parliament, and took part with the king. The peers, with the exception of Lord Essex and a few others, adhered to the king ; while the Puritans took the side of the parliament.

The royalists, to show their contempt of the opposite party, and in ridicule of the formality of the close-cropped hair of the Puritans, gave them the name of *roundheads* ; while they, on their side, gave to the royalists the titles of *cavaliers* and *malignants*.

It was now apparent that a civil war was inevitable ; but each party hung back from commencing hostilities, in the hope that the other would incur the blame of being the first to draw the sword. At last, the king, having been refused admittance into the town of Hull by Sir John Hotham the governor, felt himself driven to the necessity of taking active measures ; and, on August 20th, 1642, he erected his royal standard at Nottingham.

The first battle was fought October 3d, at Edgehill in Warwickshire. At the onset Prince Rupert bore down every thing before him ; but before the day was ended, his rash imprudence lost all that his courage had gained. The two armies, after fighting all day, remained under arms during the night ; but the next morning, after facing each other again, they retired from the field without renewing the fight. The loss on each side was equal, and neither gained a victory ; though the parliamentarians considered themselves as somewhat entitled to claim it, because the king's general, Lord Lindsey, was among the slain.

The siege of Reading, which was garrisoned for the king, occupied both parties for many months. (A. D. 1643.) It was at last taken by Essex, in the month of April. During the summer the royalists were victorious in a battle at Lansdown, near Bath ; and in another fought near Devizes ; and the parliament had a great loss in the death of Hampden, who was mortally wounded in a skirmish at Chalgrave Field, near Oxford.

Hampden was a man of such exemplary private character, that even his enemies were concerned at his death. The king, who had now made Oxford his head-quarters, was desirous, when he heard of his being wounded, to send his own surgeon to attend him ; but in the interim Hampden died.

Mr. Hampden was very temperate in diet, and the supreme governor over all his passions; he was of an industry and vigilance not to be tired out; of an understanding not to be imposed upon; and of a courage equal to his other qualities. Such was Hampden's moral courage that he dared at his own cost to question the right of the king to ship-money, and brought the question before the courts of law.

This tax was known to be illegal; indeed, there was nothing which the people of England had for more than four hundred years better known, or more strenuously insisted upon than this—that the king had no right to lay a tax without the consent of parliament. But the judges before whom this violation of the laws was carried, to obtain, if possible, a decision that might thoroughly expose it to the nation, decided that the king had a right by his own royal authority to levy this tax or any other that he might think needful.

From that time, Hampden's resolution to oppose the king and all supporters of arbitrary principles and measures became more inflexible. In the beginning of the civil war he undertook the command of a regiment in the parliamentary army, and performed his duty faithfully till he was wounded in the battle of Chalgrave Field. He survived three weeks, and then gave up a life he had devoted to the cause of civil liberty.



CAPTURE OF CHARLES I.



SEVERAL years after the civil war had raged, the king's affairs went fast to ruin ; and he lost, one after the other, almost all the towns he had garrisoned. He himself fled into Wales and afterwards to Oxford, where he passed the winter. Seeing his condition desperate, and dreading above all things to be made prisoner by the now triumphant parliament, he formed the unfortunate resolution of throwing himself into the hands of the Scots.

He accordingly set out from Oxford, and arrived on May the 5th at the Scottish camp before Newark. (A. D. 1646.) The Scottish generals were much surprised at the appearance of the king ; and though they affected to treat him with respect, they put a guard upon him, and made him in reality their prisoner.

The Scots, having now the king in their hands, required of him to send orders to the governors of Newark, Oxford, and all his other garrisons, to surrender. This he did, and the soldiers and officers all received honourable treatment from Fairfax.

As soon as the parliament knew that Charles was in the hands of the Scots, it began to treat with them for the possession of his person. The Scots, after some delays and hesitation, agreed, on condition of receiving four hundred thousand pounds, the arrears of their pay due from the parliament, to give up the king.

A private letter, communicating the information of this disgraceful bargain, was brought to Charles while he was playing at chess ; and his self-command was so great that he continued his game, without betraying by his countenance or manner that he had received any distressing news. In a few days he was given up to the English commissioners, who were sent by the parliament to take him into their custody ; and he was conveyed, in the month of February, to Holmby, in Northamptonshire, one of his own royal residences.

After the king had been at Holmby some weeks, Cromwell formed the design of carrying him thence by force, and sent Cornet Joyce, with five hundred men, to seize him. Joyce came armed with pistols into the king's presence, and told him he must come along with him.

The king asked Joyce upon what warrant he acted: he answered by pointing to his soldiers, who were a fine body of men, drawn up in the court-yard. The king said, smiling, "Your warrant is indeed written in fair characters and legible;" and knowing that resistance would be in vain, immediately consented to accompany him, and was carried to the head-quarters of the army at Triplo Heath, in Cambridgeshire.



COSTUME OF A CAVALIER.



TRIAL AND EXECUTION OF CHARLES I.



ALL things being now prepared for the fatal catastrophe, the king, on the 6th of January, 1649, was impeached of high treason for having presumed to appear in arms against the parliament. When he was informed that he must prepare for his trial, he said little, but was heard uttering to himself—"God is everywhere alike in wisdom, power, and goodness." He then retired to his apartment, and spent some time alone and in prayer.

On the 18th of January, Charles was removed from Windsor to St. James's palace; and his guards and attendants were ordered to treat him as no longer possessed of royal dignity, and to call him merely Charles Stuart. His own attendants were

forbidden to wait on him at table, and the common soldiers were appointed to bring him his meals. Charles was much shocked at this mark of disrespect; but, soon recovering his composure, he merely said, "Nothing is so contemptible as a despised king."

The preparations for the trial were soon made. Cromwell declared in a speech in parliament, that had any man voluntarily proposed to bring the king to punishment, he should have regarded that man as the greatest traitor; but, added he, "Providence and necessity hath cast it upon us."

On the 20th of January, the king's judges, who were the persons called governors of the kingdom, assembled in Westminster Hall. Charles was brought three several days before the court which his accusers had created to try him, and each time refused to acknowledge its jurisdiction. On the last of these days, January 27th, he was pronounced guilty of having appeared in arms against the parliament, and was condemned to be beheaded on the third day after.

When he had returned to his apartment at St. James's, he retired into his room with Dr. Juxon, and told Mr. Herbert to refuse admittance to all persons coming to take leave of him; adding, "My time is short and precious, and I am desirous to improve it the best I may in preparation. I hope those who love me will not take it ill that they have not access to me. The best office they can now do me is to pray for me."

A scaffold was erected in front of the palace at Whitehall, and on January 30 he was brought there, attended by Juxon and Herbert; but the latter was so much overwhelmed with grief, that the whole melancholy office of assisting the king in his last moments devolved on the aged bishop.

On the scaffold, the king spoke a few words: he declared himself innocent towards his people,—doubtless he thought himself so,—but acknowledged himself guilty in the sight of God; and that the consent which he had once given to the execution of an unjust sentence was now deservedly punished by an unjust sentence inflicted on himself; so heavily did the death of Strafford still press upon his heart.

Juxon then assisted him to unrobe. An executioner, whose face was concealed by a mask, then struck off his head, and holding it up, said, "This is the head of a traitor!" This bloody spectacle seemed to cause a sudden revulsion in the

minds of all the spectators, who felt as much surprised and shocked as if the catastrophe they witnessed had been unexpected.

Charles was in the forty-ninth year of his age, and the twenty-fifth of his reign. He married Henrietta Maria, daughter of Henry IV., king of France. Their children were three sons and three daughters.





OLIVER CROMWELL.

ACCESSION AND GOVERNMENT OF CROMWELL.



THE first act of the parliament was to abolish the House of Peers as useless and dangerous. A new great seal of England was made, the legend or inscription round which was, "The first year of freedom by God's blessing restored 1648." All loyalists were treated with great severity, and it was made high treason to call the prince of Wales by any other name than Charles Stuart.

The forms of all public business were altered, and the new legis-

lators gave to their government the name of the commonwealth of England.

Cromwell went as lord lieutenant to Ireland, (A. D. 1649,) where he found every thing in a very distracted state; but in a few months he restored order in the island. He then left his son-in-law, General Ireton, as his deputy, the affairs of Scotland calling for his presence in that country.

The Scottish Presbyterians had refused to acknowledge the English republic; and, resolving to adhere to the monarchy, had proclaimed Prince Charles their king, and sent to invite him to come and take possession of the throne; but on such hard conditions that those who were his best friends counselled him not to make such sacrifices for the empty title of king.

Charles, who entertained, probably, the dishonest intention of breaking through these conditions whenever he should be able, agreed to them and returned with the commissioners. He was not suffered to set his foot on Scottish ground till he had signed the covenant; and the moment he was on shore he was beset by the Covenanters, who strove to convert him to their own opinions.

He now found himself in a very comfortless situation. The Presbyterians kept the entire administration both of church and state in their own hands, and though they allowed him the name of king, they did not treat him even with the respect due to a superior. They paid so little regard to his feelings, that they obliged him to pass under the gates of Aberdeen, over which was hung one of the limbs of his faithful friend and servant, the marquis of Montrose, who had a little while before been put to death for appearing in arms in his cause.

Under these circumstances, Charles secretly rejoiced on finding that Cromwell was on his march to Scotland with a powerful army for the purpose of driving him from his uneasy throne. The Scottish army, commanded by General Leslie, attacked Cromwell near Dunbar, and was completely beaten, with great loss; and Cromwell would soon have been entire master of the kingdom, had he not been attacked with a fit of illness, and been obliged to return to England.

Cromwell again entered Scotland, (A. D. 1651,) and marched so far into the country as to get behind the army of the Covenanters. Charles, who was with the army, which consisted of

BATTLE OF WORCESTER AND FLIGHT OF CHARLES II.







CHARLES II. IN THE WOOD OF BOSCOBEL.

fourteen thousand men, seeing the road to the English border thus opened to him, formed the bold resolution of marching forwards into England, falsely presuming that all who were discontented with the commonwealth would flock to his standard.

Charles marched forwards, in hopes at last to gather strength; but he arrived at Worcester with only his fourteen thousand Scots. Here he halted, and had a few days' rest after his long and fatiguing march. In the mean time, Cromwell, when he found that the king had slipped by him, left the command of the Scottish war to General Monk, and followed Charles with all possible expedition.

Cromwell raised the militia of the several counties as he passed, so that by the time he reached Worcester he mustered a considerable force. The next day, Sept. 4, 1651, he surrounded the town with his troops, and, falling on the royal army, soon destroyed it, the very streets being filled with dead bodies.

Charles, after making a desperate resistance, was at last

obliged to flee, with fifty or sixty gentlemen in his company. They rode about twenty-six miles without stopping. It was then thought advisable for them to separate. Charles, by the advice of Lord Derby, went to a lone house on the borders of Staffordshire, inhabited by a man of the name of Penderell, who and his five brothers were wood-cutters in the neighbouring wood of Boscobel.

Charles committed himself to the care of these men, who showed themselves worthy of the confidence placed in them; for, though a high reward was offered to any one who would deliver up the prince, and it was declared certain death to conceal him, these honest rustics would not betray him.

On one occasion, fearing to be discovered by a party of soldiers who were searching the wood, Charles hid himself in a large oak tree; from among the branches of which he could hear the soldiers say, they wondered where he could be, for they were sure he was somewhere in the wood.

Charles was wandering about not less than six weeks, from the time of the battle of Worcester, without being able to get out of the country; and the risks he ran of discovery were very great. At last he arrived at a lone house, between Shoreham and Brighthelmstone, and found means to cross the water.

While Charles was thus wandering about, the party in power had been going on triumphantly. The victory at Worcester they chose to call their "crowning mercy." Monk had been successful in Scotland; Ireton kept every thing quiet in Ireland; and the government, elated by success, soon showed a desire to lord it over foreign states; and, in 1652, declared war against the Dutch.

Holland was at that time regarded as the most considerable maritime power in Europe, and was supposed to excel all other states in the art of ship-building, and in the skill of her seamen. But now the English navy, which the late king had paid great attention to, and which was manned by sailors whom the circumstances of the time had made bold and hardy, was found a match for that of Holland; and Admiral Blake was several times the victor in engagements with the Dutch admirals, Van Tromp, De Ruyter, and De Witt.

In the midst of all this success, an ignominious fall was preparing for that comparatively inconsiderable band of men who



CROMWELL EXPELLING THE PARLIAMENT.

still called themselves a parliament. Cromwell, who now thought it time to drive them from the high station which he had suffered them to occupy, went, on April 20, 1653, to the parliament house while the members were assembled, and placing a file of soldiers at each door, entered the hall, saying, "that he was come with a purpose of doing what grieved him to the very soul, and what he had earnestly besought the Lord not to impose upon him ; but that there was a necessity for it."

He next sat down and heard the debates, and then suddenly starting up, he exclaimed : "This is the time, I must do it." Turning to the members, he loaded them with every term of reproach, and called them tyrants, oppressors, and public robbers.

At last he stamped with his foot, on which signal the soldiers entering the hall, he ordered them to drive all the members out.

As the members took their compulsory departure, Cromwell said to them, "You are no longer a parliament; the Lord has done with you: he has chosen other instruments for carrying on his work." He stayed till the hall was empty; then ordering the doors to be locked, he put the keys into his pocket, and returned to the palace at Whitehall, where he and his family had taken up their residence.

Cromwell was now the sole head of the government, and no one attempted to dispute his power. To keep up the appearance of a commonwealth, he summoned a parliament, who set themselves to work to settle the affairs of the state. They considered the clerical office as being altogether a remnant of popery, and proposed that there should be no more clergy. The common law they deemed a badge of Norman slavery, and were desirous to set it aside. They also voted that learning was heathenish, and the universities unnecessary.

This parliament had the name given it of Barebones's parliament, from the name of one of its chief orators. At last, the measures of the parliament became so utterly absurd that Cromwell became ashamed of it, and suffered one only of their many proposed changes and regulations to be carried into effect. This one was in regard to the marriage ceremony, which was declared to be a mere civil contract, and was appointed to be performed for the future in private rooms, before a magistrate, instead of being solemnized in churches.

Cromwell had at this time the title of Protector conferred on him. The mass of the people were so tired of the tyranny and oppression of the parliament, that they were thankful to get rid of their many masters, and to enjoy any thing like a settled government. And Cromwell, though he trampled on the laws of the country, would suffer no other person but himself to do so. He enforced justice and civil order, and made his government respected at home and feared abroad.

Cromwell kept up the power of the navy, and soon obliged the Dutch to sue for peace. He attacked the Spaniards because they interrupted the English in their traffic with Spanish America, and took from them the island of Jamaica in the West Indies, which is still retained by the English. The protectorship

was not only confirmed to Cromwell for life, but was also settled on whomsoever he should choose to appoint after his death.

This proceeding alarmed both the republicans and the royalists, who began to fear that a power so well established would become permanent, to the destruction of their different hopes. In 1655, a plan was formed for a general rising among the royalists. But Cromwell and his secretary, Thurloe, had full information of their designs, and before the appointed day of insurrection, many of the royalists were taken up; some were punished with death, and several others were sold for slaves and sent to Barbadoes. This despotic act struck terror throughout the whole nation; and no other considerable attempt was made to overturn the protector's power.

Cromwell's government of Ireland was equally vigorous. Fleetwood, who had married his eldest daughter, (Ireton's widow,) was his deputy, and carried many of his arbitrary measures into effect. Fleetwood was succeeded by the protector's second son, Henry, a young man of great abilities and extraordinary goodness, who, pitying the condition of the Irish, did all he could to improve it.

Cromwell, in the latter part of his life, was under a continual dread of being secretly murdered. And though he had often braved danger in battle with intrepidity, he now betrayed a more than common fear of death; and every moment of his life was made miserable by the apprehension of losing it. In addition to these terrors, he had many causes of mortification in his own family.

Richard, Cromwell's eldest son, whom he meant for his successor, was a man of inferior talents and of no ambition. Henry Cromwell was a man of abilities, but had too much virtue to be willing to follow his father's footsteps. Cromwell's other daughters were zealous royalists; and Mrs. Claypole, the one whom he loved best of all his children, represented to him, when on her death-bed, and in terms which filled him with grief, her disapprobation of the conduct which he had pursued. From that time he was never seen to smile.

Cromwell's exertions and agitations were too great for his bodily frame to support. He found the exalted state to which he had attained a burden too heavy to be borne; and died, a worn-out old man, on September 3, 1658, in the 59th year

of his age. He was buried with royal pomp in Westminster Abbey.

Cromwell's character is one of the most extraordinary in history. His talents were, in some respects, of the very highest order. In others, he was strikingly deficient. His government of Ireland; the manner in which he treated Holland and Spain, thus vindicating the independence and naval power of England, are undoubted proofs of the energy of his mind and the wisdom of his policy.

Richard Cromwell was proclaimed protector in his father's place. But the nation soon found the difference between the strong hand of Oliver Cromwell and the feebleness of his son, and showed a disposition to cast off his authority. But Richard, quietly resigning a dignity which he had neither the power nor the inclination to keep, wisely saved himself from being dispossessed by violence. He held the protectorship only a few months.

Henry Cromwell also resigned his command in Ireland; though his popularity in that country was very great, and he might have retained his power there if he had chosen to do so.



A PURITAN SOLDIER.



CHARLES II.





RESTORATION OF CHARLES II.



THE country was now without any apparent ruler, and was split into a variety of factions. The republicans hoped to establish their long-desired form of popular government, and the royalists in their turn were full of expectations and projects.

Charles, meantime, on hearing of what was passing in England, left the Low Countries, where he had for some time past taken refuge, and came to Calais, where he stayed, awaiting the event. For some time there seemed little chance of any turn in his favour; but, at last, what the efforts of his friends could not do, the rivalry of his enemies brought about.

Lambert and Monk had long hated each other; and Monk, partly perhaps to disappoint Lambert, who was secretly ambitious of the protectorship, formed the design of bringing back the king, and entered into a correspondence with him. But he

kept his intentions so well concealed that he appeared to be only acting for the restoration of the parliament.

Monk collected several scattered regiments in Scotland, and marched directly into England. Lambert set forward to meet him, but found himself deserted by his own soldiers; and the parliament, being no longer held in terror by the troops, assumed once more the reins of government, arrested Lambert, and committed him to the Tower.

Monk and his army soon reached London. He appeared at first to acknowledge the authority of the parliament; but in a few days openly avowed his contempt of that obtrusive body of men, and declared for a free parliament. He called together all the surviving members of the old or Long Parliament, who had been expelled by Colonel Pride in 1648. They met on February 21, 1660, and in a few days formally dissolved themselves, and issued writs for a new parliament, which assembled April 25.

On the 1st of May, Monk, having every thing ripe for his project, ventured to propose to parliament the restoration of the king. It is impossible to describe the joy with which this proposal was heard—a joy which soon spread from the house to the city, and from thence through the whole country. The peers from all parts of the kingdom hastened to reinstate themselves in their parliamentary rights; and on the 8th of May, Charles II. was proclaimed king, and a committee of gentlemen was sent to invite him to return and take possession of his dominions.

The king sailed from Scheveling, a small village on the coast of Holland, and was met at Dover by General Monk, who conducted him to London, which he entered amidst the joyful acclamations of the people, May 29, 1660.

Charles was thirty years old when, after sixteen years, he was so unexpectedly placed on the throne of his ancestors. He had a good figure, and though his features were harsh, there was something agreeable in his countenance; and his cheerful, easy, and graceful deportment made him altogether a very engaging person. He had a great deal of shrewdness and wit; and with common application might have been any thing he pleased. But he loved amusement, and hated business, and to live idly and merrily was all he cared for.



EXECUTION OF SIR HENRY VANE.

The king began his reign by forming a ministry from among the best and wisest men of all parties, and he gave general satisfaction by the choice he made. An act of indemnity, or of general pardon, was then passed towards all those who had taken part against the crown, excepting only the judges who had sat on the late king's trial, and all those who had in any other way been immediately accessory to his death. About sixty persons had been concerned in that act. Of these many were dead, and others had left the kingdom.

Of those who could be brought to trial, ten only were executed: the rest were reprieved and placed in different prisons. Harrison, who had conducted Charles I. from Hurst Castle, was among those who suffered. He died justifying his conduct to the last. Hugh Peters also was executed. He had been one of Cromwell's fanatical preachers, and had not only been very active in stirring up the minds of the people against the king; but also, it was supposed, was one of the masked executioners who beheaded him.

General Lambert and Sir Henry Vane, though they were not absolutely regicides, were yet thought too guilty to be included in the act of indemnity. Vane was executed: Lambert was reprieved and exiled to the island of Guernsey, where he

lived thirty years, and from being a rigid Puritan became a Roman Catholic.

This act of retribution being performed, the ministry applied themselves to the business of the state. The chancellor, Lord Clarendon, who had attended the king during his exile, had the chief weight in the council, and by his integrity and wisdom the government was carried on for a time with justice and moderation. The old standing army of the republicans was disbanded: the king retained only a few guards and garrisons; and most of the fortified places that had not been destroyed in the civil wars were dismantled.

Charles married Catherine of Braganza, daughter of the king of Portugal. (A. D. 1662.) The new queen had been educated in a convent, and was very formal and grave: she rejected the company of the English ladies, and would only have about her a set of old solemn Spanish duennas. The king found her and her court so dull that he neglected her society, and spent most of his time with idle and dissolute companions and unprincipled women.

Charles entered into a war with Holland, which afterwards led to a rupture with France and Denmark. (A. D. 1664.) This war was carried on wholly by sea; and the king's brother, James, duke of York, an active enterprising man, commanded the fleet. Many well-contested actions were fought, and many fruitless victories gained. One of these engagements lasted four days, and is among the most memorable recorded in history.

The Dutch fleet consisted of seventy-six ships, and was commanded by the famous De Ruyter, and by Van Tromp, son of the great Van Tromp. The English fleet was commanded by Prince Rupert, and by Monk, then duke of Albemarle, and altogether was nearly equal to the Dutch. The detail of the different engagements of the four days would be little instructive. On the last day neither party had gained the victory.

The two fleets then retired to their harbours, but met again, June 25th, at the mouth of the Thames, when the English obtained a decisive victory. De Ruyter, indignant at being obliged to fly, frequently exclaimed, "O God, among so many thousand bullets, is there not one to put an end to my miserable life!" The English were now incontestably masters of the sea; but they had been visited at home during this year by so many



GREAT FIRE OF LONDON.

calamities that they had no spirit to rejoice in any triumphs over a foreign foe.

In the preceding autumn, a most violent plague had broken out, particularly in London. There, in a short time, ninety thousand persons are said to have died of that malady. While London was still suffering under this calamity, it was assailed also by another. On the 3d of September, 1666, a fire broke out near London Bridge, which spread with such rapidity that thirteen thousand houses were burnt down.

These dreadful scenes were not without some good effect on the king's disposition, and detached him for a while from the idle and dissolute habits he had sunk into; but his vicious companions soon got about him, and rallied him out of all his good resolutions; and he relapsed into his former way of life.

These vicious companions, the chief of whom was the duke of Buckingham, had long meditated the overthrow of Lord Cla-



LORD CLARENDON.

rendon, whose integrity made him the particular object of their dislike. It happened that the Dutch fleet sailed up the Medway, and destroyed some ships in the harbour at Chatham. A peace was made with Holland soon afterwards. Buckingham and his party found means of turning both this peace itself, and also the disgrace at Chatham, to the particular discredit of Clarendon, insinuating that the latter could not have taken place, unless he had been negligent of the public security.

Charles, who had little gratitude in his nature, forgetting how faithfully this great statesman had served him in all his wanderings and necessities, and how much his wisdom had contributed to strengthen him on the throne, was not sorry to have a pretext for removing a man who was some check upon his vices. Clarendon was, therefore, impeached on various frivolous pretences, and was sentenced to banishment.

Clarendon retired into France, and employed the remainder of his life chiefly in composing his History of the Rebellion, and also in writing an account of his own life. His youngest daughter, Anne Hyde, married the duke of York soon after the restoration. She died young, leaving two children, the princesses Mary and Anne.

After Clarendon's disgrace, Prince Rupert, the duke of Ormond, Sir Orlando Bridgman, and other men of experience and high character, had for a time the chief weight in the council. But in 1670 their influence declined, and the king, whose carelessness about public affairs daily increased, committed the entire management of the state to five of the most unprincipled men in the kingdom, Clifford, Ashley, Buckingham, Arlington, and Lauderdale, who were called the *Cabal*, from the first letters of their names.

One of the nefarious measures of this administration was to shut up the exchequer, and to take possession of the money which private individuals had placed in it. Another, and a still more generally unpopular measure, was that of entering into a new war with the Dutch, in order to gratify Louis XIV., one of the most ambitious, vain-glorious, and unprincipled kings that ever reigned.

Charles at first hesitated to take such an unpopular step; but he was at length persuaded into it by his sister Henrietta, duchess of Orleans, who was sent on a visit to him by the French king. It is even said that the restoration of popery in England was made an article of a secret treaty between the two kings. Charles, if he had any religion at all, was in his heart a Papist; and the duke of York was a professed one.

The French and English fleets now joined each other. As they were at anchor in Solebay, De Ruyter came unexpectedly upon them. The duke of York commanded in chief, in the action between the Dutch and the combined fleets, and had his ship so shattered that he was obliged to remove his flag on board another. The battle lasted the whole day, and De Ruyter declared that, of the thirty-two actions he had been in, this was the hardest fought. The English and Dutch lost many ships, and neither party gained any thing. The French took care to keep aloof during the engagement.

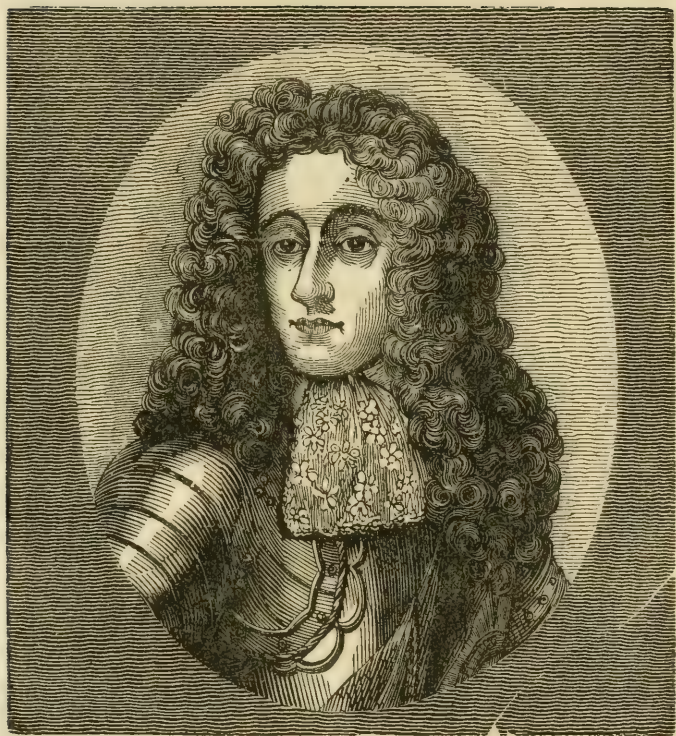
Another memorable naval action was fought on August 11, 1673. The English fleet was commanded by Prince Rupert, the Dutch by De Ruyter. In this battle too, as in many of the former, nothing was gained by either party.

By the death of Clifford, and the disgrace of Ashley, who had been created Lord Shaftesbury, the *cabal* was broken up. (A. D. 1674.) More honest ministers came into place, and wiser

measures were pursued. One of these measures was to make peace with Holland ; but Charles still kept up with France a secret alliance on the most dishonourable terms. He received privately from Louis XIV. an annual pension of two millions of livres, as the price of his supporting the French interest in his own court.

In the midst of a life of vicious indulgence, Charles was attacked by an apoplexy, and died, after a few days' illness, February 6th, 1685, in the fifty-fifth year of his age, and the twenty-fifth of his reign. Charles II. married Catherine of Braganza, daughter of the king of Portugal. They had no children.



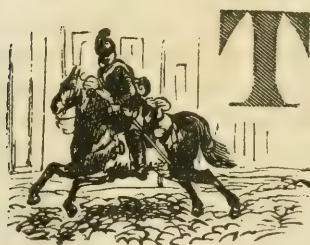


JAMES II.



THE BISHOPS LEAVING THE TOWER.

ATTEMPT OF JAMES II. TO RE-ESTABLISH THE CATHOLIC RELIGION IN ENGLAND.



THE duke of York, who succeeded his brother by the title of king James II. (A. D. 1685,) had been bred a Papist by his mother, and was strongly bigoted to his principles. He went openly to mass with all the ensigns of his dignity, and even sent one Caryl as his agent to

Rome, to make submission to the pope, and to pave the way for the readmission of England into the bosom of the Catholic church.

Among those who distinguished themselves against Popery was one Dr. Sharpe, (A. D. 1686,) a clergyman of London, who declaimed with just severity against those who changed their

religion by such arguments as the popish missionaries were able to produce. This, being supposed to reflect upon the king, gave great offence at court, and positive orders were given to the bishop of London to suspend Sharpe, till his majesty's pleasure should be further known. The bishop refused to comply, and the king resolved to punish the bishop himself for disobedience.

To effect his design, an ecclesiastical commission was issued out, by which seven commissioners were invested with a full and unlimited authority over the whole church of England. Before this tribunal the bishop was summoned, and not only he, but Sharpe, the preacher, suspended.

The next step was to allow the liberty of conscience to all sectaries; and he was taught to believe, that the truth of the Catholic religion would then, upon a fair trial, gain the victory. He, therefore, issued a declaration of general indulgence, and asserted that non-conformity to the established religion was no longer penal.

To complete his work, he publicly sent the earl of Castlemain ambassador extraordinary to Rome, in order to express his obedience to the pope, and to reconcile his kingdom to the Catholic communion. Never was there so much contempt thrown upon an embassy that was so boldly undertaken. The court of Rome expected but little success from measures so blindly conducted. They were sensible that the king was openly striking at those laws and opinions which it was his business to undermine in silence and security.

The Jesuits soon after were permitted to erect colleges in different parts of the kingdom; they exercised the Catholic worship in the most public manner; and four Catholic bishops, consecrated in the king's chapel, were sent through the kingdom to exercise their episcopal functions, under the title of apostolic vicars.

Father Francis, a Benedictine monk, was recommended by the king to the university of Cambridge, for a degree of master of arts. But his religion was a stumbling-block which the university could not get over; and they presented a petition, beseeching the king to recall his mandate. Their petition was disregarded, and their deputies denied a hearing; the vice-chancellor himself was summoned to appear before the high commission

court, and deprived of his office ; yet the university persisted, and father Francis was refused.

The place of president of Magdalen college, one of the richest foundations in Europe, being vacant, the king sent a mandate in favour of one Farmer, a new convert to popery, and a man of bad character in other respects. The fellows of the college made very submissive applications to the king for recalling his mandate ; they refused admitting the candidate, and James, finding them resolute in the defence of their privileges, ejected them all except two.

A second declaration for liberty of conscience was published about the same time with the former ; but with this peculiar injunction, that all divines should read it after service in their churches. (A. D. 1688.) The clergy were known universally to disapprove of these measures, and they were now resolved to disobey an order dictated by the most bigoted motives. They were determined to trust their cause to the favour of the people, and that universal jealousy which prevailed against the encroachment of the crown. The first champions of this service of danger were Lloyd, bishop of St. Asaph ; Ken, of Bath and Wells ; Turner, of Ely ; Lake, of Chichester ; White, of Peterborough ; and Trelawney, of Bristol. These, together with Sancroft, the primate, concerted the address, in the form of a petition to the king, which, with the warmest expressions of zeal and submission, remonstrated that they could not read his declaration consistent with their consciences, or the respect they owed the Protestant religion.

The king in a fury summoned the bishops before the council, and there questioned them whether they would acknowledge their petition. They for some time declined giving an answer ; but, being urged by the chancellor, they at last owned it. On their refusal to give bail, an order was immediately drawn for their commitment to the Tower, and the crown lawyers received directions to prosecute them for a seditious libel.

The twenty-ninth day of June, (A. D. 1688,) was fixed for their trial ; and their return was more splendidly attended than their imprisonment. The cause was looked upon as involving the fate of the nation ; and future freedom or future slavery awaited the decision. The dispute was learnedly managed by the lawyers on both sides. Holloway and Powel, two of the

judges, declared themselves in favour of the bishops. The jury withdrew into a chamber, where they passed the whole night; but next morning they returned into court, and pronounced the bishops not guilty. Westminster Hall instantly rang with loud acclamations, which were communicated to the whole extent of the city. They even reached the camp at Hounslow, where the king was at dinner, in Lord Feversham's tent. His majesty demanded the cause of these rejoicings, and being informed that it was nothing but the soldiers shouting at the delivery of the bishops, "Call you that nothing?" cried he; "but so much the worse for them!"

It was in this posture of affairs that all people turned their eyes upon William, prince of Orange, who had married Mary, the eldest daughter of king James.

William was a prince who had, from his earliest entrance into business, been immersed in dangers, calamities, and politics. The ambition of France and the jealousies of Holland had served to sharpen his talents, and to give him a propensity for intrigue.

This politic prince now plainly saw that James had incurred the most violent hatred of his subjects. (A. D. 1688.) He was minutely informed of their discontents; and by seeming to discourage, still farther increased them, hoping to gain the kingdom for himself in the sequel.

The time when the prince entered upon this enterprise was just when the people were in a flame about the recent insult offered to their bishops. He had before this made considerable augmentations to the Dutch fleet, and the ships were then lying ready in the harbour. Some additional troops were also levied, and sums of money raised for other purposes were converted to the advancement of this expedition.

So well concerted were his measures, that, in three days, above four hundred transports were hired; the army fell down the rivers and canals from Nimeguen, with all necessary stores; and the prince set sail from Helvoetsluys, with a fleet of nearly five hundred vessels, and an army of above fourteen thousand men.

It was given out that this invasion was intended for the coast of France; and many of the English, who saw the fleet pass along their coasts, little expected to see it land on their own



WILLIAM III. LANDING IN ENGLAND.

shores. Thus, after a voyage of two days, the prince landed his army at the village of Broxholme, in Torbay, on the fifth of November, which was the anniversary of the gunpowder treason.

But though the invitation from the English was very general, the prince had for some time the mortification to find himself joined by very few. He marched first to Exeter, where the country people had been so much terrified at the executions which had ensued on Monmouth's rebellion, that they continued to observe a strict neutrality. He remained for ten days in expectation of being joined by the malcontents, and at last began to despair of success. But, just when he began to deliberate about re-embarking his forces, he was joined by several persons of consequence; and the whole country soon after came flocking to his standard. The nobility, clergy, officers, and even the king's own servants and creatures, were unanimous in deserting James. Lord Churchill had been raised from the rank of a page, and had been invested with a high command in the army; had been created a peer, and owed his whole fortune to the king's bounty; even he deserted among the rest, and carried with him the duke of Grafton, the natural son of the late king, Colonel Berkeley, and some others.

The prince of Denmark, and Anne, his favourite daughter,

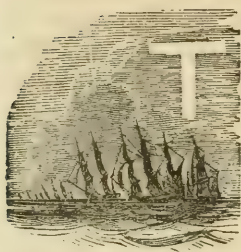
perceiving the desperation of his circumstances, resolved to leave him, and take part with the prevailing side. When he was told that the prince and princess had followed the rest of his favourites, he was stung with most bitter anguish. "God help me," cried he, in the extremity of his agony, "my own children have forsaken me!"

The king, alarmed every day more and more with the prospect of a general disaffection, was resolved to hearken to those who advised his quitting the kingdom. To prepare for this, he first sent away the queen, who arrived safely at Calais, under the conduct of Count Lauzun, an old favourite of the French king. He himself soon after disappeared in the night-time, attended only by Sir Edward Hale, a new convert; but was discovered and brought back by the mob.

But shortly after, being confined at Rochester, and observing that he was entirely neglected by his own subjects, he resolved to seek safety from the king of France, the only friend he had still remaining. He accordingly fled to the sea-side, attended by his natural son, the duke of Berwick, where he embarked for the continent, and arrived in safety at Ambleteuse in Picardy, from whence he hastened to the court of France, where he still enjoyed the empty title of a king, and the appellation of a saint, which flattered him more.

The king having thus abdicated the throne, the next consideration was the appointing a successor. (A. D. 1688.) Some declared for a regent; others, that the princess of Orange should be invested with regal power, and the young prince considered as supposititious. After a long debate in both houses, a new sovereign was preferred to a regent, by a majority of two voices. It was agreed that the Prince and Princess of Orange should reign jointly as King and Queen of England, while the administration of government should be placed in the hands of the prince only.

WAR BETWEEN FRANCE AND HOLLAND— DEATH OF TURENNE.



THE rapid successes of Louis XIV. gave alarm to Europe; and a triple alliance was formed against Louis, between England, Holland, and Sweden,—and concluded in a few days. The grand pensioner of Holland, John de Witt, became the soul of this conspiracy, which obliged the king to sign the treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle, whereby he retained Flanders, and restored Franche-Comté. (A. D. 1668.)

During the peace, Louis turned his attention to the internal administration of his kingdom, and to the affairs of the church of France, disturbed by the quarrels of Jansenism. He next meditated taking vengeance upon Holland for the share which it had taken in the triple alliance. He entertained a profound contempt for all forms of government, save the monarchical; and, notwithstanding that it was his interest to conciliate industrious citizens, who poured annually sixty millions of money into his markets, he listened only to his hatred and scorn against them. This was one of the great faults of his reign. Everywhere, and at all times, he found before him this nation of merchants, heretics, and republicans, whose existence irritated him, and whose wealth purchased enemies against him in the two worlds. Offended by certain medals, which represented the United Provinces as the arbiter of Europe, and enraged by the extravagance of certain gazetteers, the king seized upon these frivolous pretexts to declare war against the Dutch. He detached from their alliance the bishops of Cologne and Munster, Charles XI., king of Sweden, and Charles II., king of England, always ready to sacrifice the interests of his people to the gratification of his pleasures. The Dutch navy covered

the seas, and secured the commercial prosperity of that republic by protecting its magnificent establishments in the East Indies. Louis XIV. reinforced his with fifty English vessels, and entered Holland at the head of a hundred thousand men. (1672.) He had with him Turenne, Vauban, Luxembourg, and Louvois. The latter purveyed with admirable foresight for the maintenance and equipment of the troops, by the establishment of magazines of clothes and provisions, till then altogether unknown. Condé commanded the army; and had, for his opponent the celebrated William of Orange, captain-general, at twenty-two years of age, of the forces of the republic. The passage of the Rhine, more boasted of than glorious, was effected, without danger, under the king's eye, in the face of the Dutch, whose numbers were too inferior for resistance. An imprudent charge cost the duc de Longueville his life; and Condé received a wound which compelled him to surrender the command to Turenne. In a few months, three provinces and forty fortresses were subdued. John de Witt, the grand pensioner, advised his countrymen to treat with the conqueror; and advances were made to Louis XIV., in spite of the lively opposition of the prince of Orange. The illustrious Grotius, at the head of a Dutch deputation, made advantageous proposals to the king; but Louis exacted still further concessions, blinded by his successes and self-love. He demanded the re-establishment of the Catholic religion in Holland—the abandonment of the temples to the Roman worship—twenty millions towards the expenses of the war—the cession of all that the United Provinces possessed beyond the Wahl and the Rhine—and, finally, propitiatory medals to be presented to him every year in token that the United Provinces held their existence and liberties from him. The Dutch people, exasperated by these cruel pretensions, turned their fury against John de Witt and the admiral Cornelius de Witt, his brother—accusing them of connivance with Louis. They were murdered by the populace, their bodies torn in pieces, and subjected to a thousand outrages. Despair gave strength to the conquered; and, animated by patriotic devotion, they bored their dykes, and laid the country under water, in the hope of compelling the French to evacuate it. The Dutch admiral Ruyter strove gloriously against the combined fleets of France and England; and the

issue of the battle of Saultsbay delivered the coasts of the republic from all danger of further insult. Europe began to bestir itself in favour of Holland: the emperor Leopold, the king of Spain, most of the princes of the empire, and the elector of Brandenburg, Frederick-William, the first founder of the high fortunes of his house—all took alarm at the ambition of Louis XIV., and leagued against him. Charles II. himself was compelled, by his parliament, to abandon France. Menaced by such a host of enemies, Louis withdrew his troops from the conquered towns, the fortifications of which he forgot to destroy; and all Holland was, in a short time, evacuated, the king retaining only Grave and Maestricht. But Franche-Comté indemnified him for so many losses; by his order, the duc de Noailles and Vauban entered that province, which they conquered, for the second time, in six weeks, and snatched irrevocably from Spain. (1674.)

The great Condé, making head against the prince of Orange, fought now his last battle, near Senef, in Flanders. The battle seemed won; but William rallied his troops, and arrested the conquerors. Three times did Condé charge him, without being able to drive him from his impregnable position. The loss was dreadful on both sides; twenty-seven thousand dead remained on the field of battle. Condé had three horses killed under him. The battle lasted fourteen hours, and the issue of the day remained still undecided.

Turenne was more fortunate in Alsace. He conquered, at Sintzheim, the old duke of Lorraine, and the army of the Imperial Circles, commanded by Eneas de Caprara. After this victory, he passed the Rhine and entered the palatinate, where he tarnished his laurels by permitting frightful ravages: two towns and twenty-five villages there were delivered a prey to the flames. Speedily, however, recalled into Alsace, by the progress of the army of the Circles, he awaited it in the environs of Landau and Wissemburg, where he remained in defiance of the formal orders of Louvois and of Louis XIV., by whom he was ordered to defend Champagne and Lorraine, which were threatened with invasion. Turenne, however, succeeded in convincing the king, and justified his conduct by twice beating an enemy superior to him in force—first, at Ansheim, and afterwards at Turkheim, and obliging him to evacuate Alsace, and

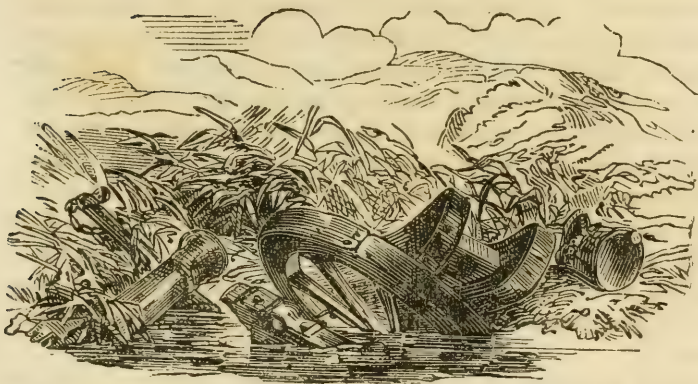
repass the Rhine, reduced in numbers by one-half. This campaign and the following were Turenne's master-pieces, and put the final seal to his reputation. The emperor sent against him Montecuculli, the greatest of his captains, and conqueror of Saint-Gothard. The two great rivals first made mutual proof of each other's skill, in a series of scientific manœuvres, which remain to this day the admiration of tacticians. At length, both seemed on the point of giving battle, near the village of Salzbach, in the territory of Baden, and Turenne conceived himself secure of victory, when, in visiting a battery, he was struck dead by a cannon-shot. (1675.) The same ball carried away the arm of M. de Saint-Hilaire, lieutenant-general of infantry, who, on seeing his son burst into tears by his side, exclaimed—"Not for me, my son, but for this great man, should you weep." Turenne died at the age of sixty-four. Born a Protestant, he had become a convert to catholicism, and was buried in the tomb of the kings, at Saint-Denis. Montecuculli, informed of his death, compelled his two successors, Generals De Lorges and Vaubrun, to repass the Rhine. Vaubrun was killed in the passage of the river, but De Lorges effected his retreat. The free town of Strasburg immediately offered its bridge to Montecuculli, who penetrated into Alsace. Condé, despatched to meet him, arrested his march, and forced him to evacuate the province. This was the last campaign of these two great captains.

The duc de Créqui suffered himself to be beaten, in the same year, at Consurbruck, by the duke of Lorraine; but this reverse was effaced by some brilliant successes. Messina had thrown off the Spanish yoke, and placed itself under the protection of France. Assisted by the Dutch fleet, the Spaniards endeavoured to retake it. Duquesne, at the head of a French fleet, frustrated their plans. He gained the naval battle of Stromboli, and that of Agosta, which cost Admiral Ruyter his life. (1676.) The maréchal de Vivonne completed the destruction of the enemy's fleet, on its coming out of Palermo. These glorious operations were followed by two brilliant campaigns of the king, in Flanders. The heroic taking of Valenciennes, by the musketeers, in open day, (1677,)—those of Cambray and Saint-Omer—and the victory of Cassel, gained by the duke of Orleans, the king's brother, against the prince of Orange, ter-

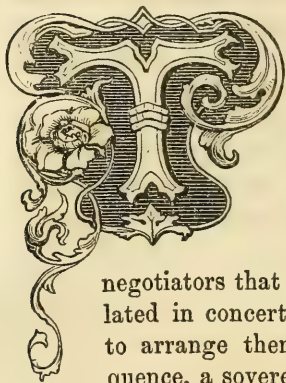


DEATH OF TURENNE.

minated this war, unjustly undertaken, but gloriously concluded; and Louis saw himself the arbiter of the destinies of Europe. The states-general of Holland were weary of a struggle sustained only by means of their subsidies; and a congress assembled at Nimeguen, where peace was signed on the 10th of August, 1678. Holland recovered all which had been taken from her during the war; Spain abandoned Franche-Comté, and a great number of places in the Netherlands; the emperor ceded the two Imperial towns, of which the maréchal de Feuillade had gained possession, and surrendered Friburg in exchange for Philipsburg; and France's right of possession over Alsace was confirmed. The young duke of Lorraine, the nephew of Charles IV., refused to submit himself to the law of Louis XIV., and rejected the conditions on which he was to be re-established in his states, which France, therefore, continued to occupy; and Sicily was evacuated.



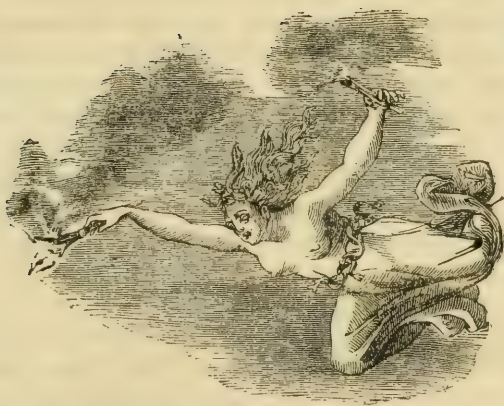
WAR BETWEEN FRANCE AND GERMANY.



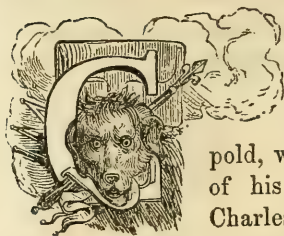
O the advantages secured by the peace of Nimeguen, Louis added others, not less important, which he obtained by fraud and violence. It was stated, in the treaty, that the various cessions should be accompanied by *all their dependencies*; but it had been the intention of the negotiators that all these annexations should be regulated in concert. Louis, however, assumed the right to arrange them alone; and established, in consequence, a sovereign court at Besançon, and two councils, equally supreme, one at Brisach, and the other at Metz, commissioned to pronounce, without appeal, on the annexations to his crown. By this arbitrary proceeding, the king of Sweden, the duke of Wirtemberg, and Deux Ponts, the elector palatine, the elector of Trèves, and an infinity of other princes, were despoiled of a portion of their dominions, and summoned to do homage in respect of others of their possessions. Louis seized upon Strasburg, in a manner not less violent. Louvois and the marquis de Montclar appeared suddenly before that place with twenty thousand men. Induced by threats and seduction to capitulate, it was annexed to France, and, fortified by Vauban, became the rampart of the kingdom against Germany.

Justly indignant at these usurpations, the powers of Europe signed a new league on the very day of the capture of Strasburg. But three hundred thousand Turks had, at that period, poured down upon the empire; and Vienna, reduced by them to extremity, must have fallen, but for the aid of John Sobieski, king of Poland, and Prince Charles of Lorraine, both of whom had joined themselves to the army of the Circles. Leo-

pold, and most of the other powers, too much weakened to recommence the war, protested against France without acting. Spain, alone, ventured to fight, and lost Courtray, Dixmude, and Luxemburg. A truce of twenty years, to which the emperor and Holland were parties, was concluded at Ratisbon. (1684.) By this truce, the king was authorized to retain, during its continuance, Luxemburg, Strasburg, and all the annexations decreed by his sovereign courts. Thus Louis XIV., in extending his conquests by illegitimate methods, accumulated on his own head hoarded resentments, which were destined to break out against him in the day of adversity.

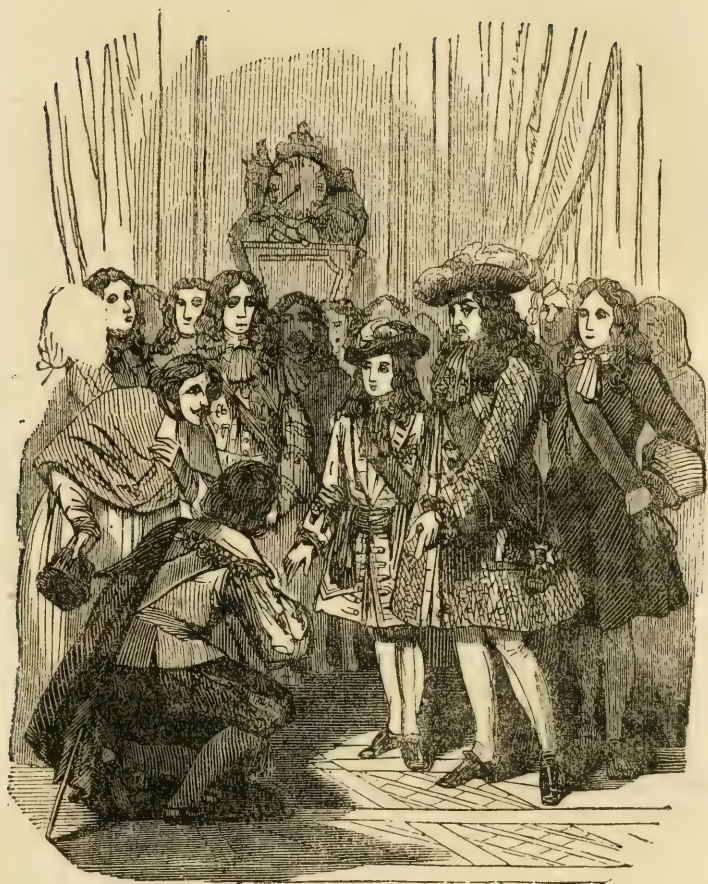


ACCESSION OF PHILIP V. OF SPAIN.



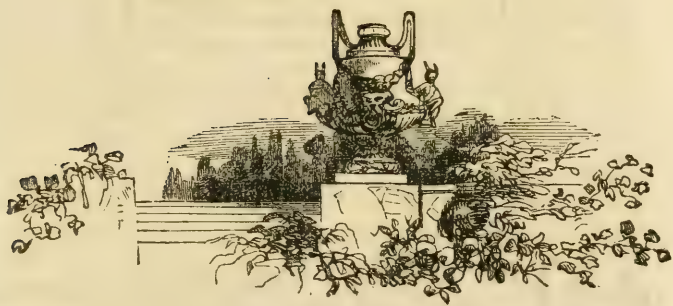
HARLES II., king of Spain, was languishing at the point of death ; and the kings of France and England, together with the emperor Leopold, were already meditating the partition of his vast territories among themselves. Charles, by his first will, executed in 1698, had nominated as his heir the electoral prince of Bavaria, aged only six years. That young prince, however, died in the following year ; and the expiring monarch, after long consultation with the pope, the Spanish universities, and his own council, appointed as his successor Philip, duc d'Anjou, grandson of his eldest sister Maria-Theresa, and son of the dauphin of France. In case Philip should refuse to renounce his claims to the crown of France, his brother, the duc de Berry, was substituted for him ; and after the duc de Berry was named the archduke Charles, the second son of the emperor. In any event, the testator forbade the dismemberment of the Spanish monarchy. He died in 1700.

Louis XIV. knew that to accept this will would be to involve France in a new war, and brave Europe, at all times sufficiently inclined to reproach him with aiming at universal monarchy. He could not, however, resist the temptation of placing so brilliant a crown on the head of his grandson ; and, after some hesitation, he accepted—acknowledged the duc d'Anjou as king by the title of Philip V., and sent him into Spain with those celebrated words : “ The Pyrenees exist no longer.” The emperor immediately protested ; and a year had scarcely elapsed ere Holland, England, and the empire made common cause against Louis XIV. That monarch had committed two grievous faults—the one in sending letters-patent to Philip V.,



LOUIS XIV. ACKNOWLEDGES HIS GRANDSON KING OF SPAIN.

whereby his rights to the crown of France were preserved against the express will of the testator; the other, in acknowledging as king of England, on the death of James II., his son the prince of Wales, in defiance of a formal clause in the treaty of Ryswick. The tears of James's widow and the importunities of Madame de Maintenon had prevailed with the king over the unanimous advice of his council. The combined powers made immediate preparation for that terrible war, known in history under the name of the war of succession, (1701,) in which the north of Europe alone had no part, divided, as it then was, between Peter the Great and Charles XII. The only supporters of Louis XIV. against this formidable league were the king of Portugal, the duke of Savoy, and the electors of Bavaria and Cologne.





SIEGE OF VIENNA.

THE Hungarians, whose privileges the emperor Leopold had never sufficiently respected, had again broken out into rebellion; and Tekeli, the head of the insurgents, had called in the Turks to the support of his countrymen. By the assistance of the basha of Buda, he ravaged Silesia, and reduced many important places in Hungary; while Mahomet IV., the reigning sultan, was preparing the most formidable force that the Ottoman empire had ever sent against Christendom.

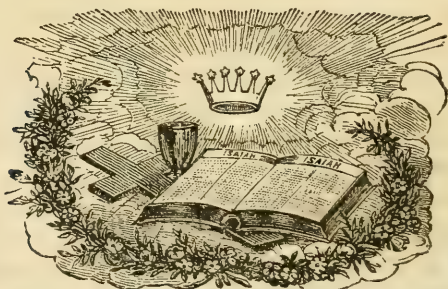
Leopold, foreseeing that the gathering storm would finally break upon Germany, besides demanding the assistance of the princes of the empire, concluded an offensive and defensive alliance with John Sobieski, king of Poland. Meanwhile the grand vizier, Kara Mustapha, passing through Hungary, at the head of fifty thousand janizaries, thirty thousand spahis, and two hundred thousand common men, assembled for the occasion, with baggage and artillery in proportion to such a multitude, advanced towards Vienna. The duke of Lorraine, who commanded the Imperial forces, attempted in vain to oppose the progress of the invader. The Turks, under the grand vizier, took the right of the Danube, and Tekeli, with the Hungarians, the left. Seeing his capital threatened on every side, the emperor retired first to Lintz, and afterwards to Passau. Two-thirds of the inhabitants followed the court; and nothing was to be seen, on all sides, but fugitives, equipages, and carriages laden with movables. The whole empire was thrown into consternation.

The garrison of Vienna amounted to about fifteen thousand men; and the citizens able to bear arms, to near fifty thousand. The Turks invested the town on the 17th of July, 1683; and they had not only destroyed the suburbs, but made a breach in the body of the place by the first of September. The duke of Lorraine had been so fortunate as to prevent the Hungarians from joining the Turks, but was unable to lend the garrison any relief; and an assault was every moment expected, when a deliverer appeared. John Sobieski, king of Poland, having joined his troops to those of Saxony, Bavaria, and the Circles, made a signal to the besieged from the top of the mountain of Calemberg, and inspired them with new hopes. Kara Mustapha, who, from a contempt of the Christians, had neglected to push the assault, and who, amidst the progress of ruin, had waned in luxury, was now made sensible of his mistake, when too late to repair it.

The Christians, to the number of sixty-four thousand, descended the mountain, under the command of the king of Poland, the duke of Lorraine, and an incredible number of German princes. The grand vizier advanced to meet them at the head of the main body of the Turkish army, while he ordered an assault to be made upon the city with twenty thousand men,

who were left in the trenches. The assault failed; and the Turks, being seized with a panic, were routed almost without resistance. Only five hundred of the victors fell, and not above one thousand of the vanquished. And so great was the terror, and so precipitate the flight of the infidels, that they abandoned not only their tents, artillery, and baggage, but left behind them even the famous standard of Mahomet, which was sent as a present to the pope! The Turks received another defeat in the plain of Barcan; and all Hungary, on both sides of the Danube, was recovered by the Imperial arms.

The king of France, who had supported the malcontents in Hungary, and who encouraged the invasion of the Turks, raised however the blockade of Luxemburg, when they approached Vienna. "I will never," said he, "attack a Christian prince, while Christendom is in danger from the infidels." He was confident, when he made this declaration, that the Imperial city would be taken, and had an army on the frontiers of Germany, ready to oppose the farther progress of those very Turks whom he had invited thither! By becoming the protector of the empire, he hoped to get his son elected king of the Romans. But this scheme being defeated, and the apprehensions of Christendom removed by the relief of Vienna and the expulsion of the Turks, Louis returned to the siege of Luxemburg, (A. D. 1684;) and reduced, in a short time, not only that place, but also Courtray and Dixmude, as already related.





BURNING OF DEERFIELD.

KING PHILIP'S WAR.



HE state of prosperous repose which New England enjoyed for several years was interrupted by a general conspiracy of the Indian tribes, (1674,) that produced a war so bloody and formidable as to threaten for some time the utter destruction of all the settlements. This hostile combination was promoted by a

young chief whose history reminds us of the exploits of Opechancanough in Virginia. He was the second son of Massasoit, a prince who ruled a powerful tribe inhabiting territories adjacent to the settlement of Plymouth at the time when the English first

gained a footing in the country. The father had entered into an alliance with the colonists, and, after his death, his two sons expressed an earnest desire to retain and cultivate their friendship. They even requested of the magistrates of Plymouth, as a mark of identification with their allies, that English names might be given them; and, in compliance with their desire, the elder received the name of Alexander, and the younger of Philip. But these expressions of good-will were prompted entirely by the artifice that regulated their schemes of hostility; and they were both shortly after detected and disappointed in a treacherous attempt to involve the Narragansets in hostilities with the colonists. The haughty spirit of the elder brother was overwhelmed by this disgrace. Unable to brook the detection and discomfiture of his perfidy, and perhaps additionally stung by the generous clemency of the colonists, which lent aggravation to his infamy, he abandoned himself to despair, and died of the corrosion of rage and mortification. Philip, after the death of his brother, renewed the alliance between his tribe and the English; but nothing was farther from his thoughts than the fulfilment of his engagements. Subtle, fierce, artful, and dissembling, yet stern in adventurous purpose and relentless cruelty, he meditated a universal conspiracy of the Indians for the extirpation of the colonists, and for several years pursued this design as secretly and successfully as the numerous difficulties that encompassed him would permit. Next to the growing power of the European settlers, nothing more keenly provoked his indignation than the progress of their missionary labours; and in reality, it was to these labours, and some of the consequences they produced, that the colonists were indebted for their preservation from the ruin that would have attended the success of Philip's machinations. Some of the tribes to whom he applied revealed his propositions to the missionaries; and several Indians who had embraced his schemes were persuaded by their converted brethren to renounce them. The magistrates of Plymouth frequently remonstrated with him on the dishonour he incurred and the danger he provoked by the perfidious machinations of which from time to time they obtained information; and by renewed and more solemn engagements than before, he endeavoured to disarm their vigilance and allay their apprehension. For two or three years before the present period, he pursued his hostile

projects with such successful duplicity as to elude discovery, and even suspicion; and had now succeeded in uniting some of the fiercest and most powerful of the Indian tribes in a confederacy to make war on the colonists to the point of extermination.

A converted Indian, who was labouring as a missionary among the tribes of his countrymen, having discovered the plot, revealed it to the governor of Plymouth, and was soon after found dead in a field, under circumstances that left no doubt of assassination. Some neighbouring Indians, suspected of being the perpetrators of this crime, were apprehended, and solemnly tried before a jury, consisting half of English and half of Indians, who returned a verdict of guilty. At their execution, one of the convicts confessed the murder,—declaring, withal, that its commission had been planned and instigated by Philip; and this crafty chief, alarmed at the perilous disclosure, now threw off the mask, and summoned his confederates to his aid. The States of Massachusetts, Plymouth, and Connecticut took arms for their common defence,—having first employed every means to induce Philip to accommodate the quarrel by a friendly treaty. But a bloodless issue was not what Philip desired; and perceiving that the season of secret conspiracy was over, he rejected all negotiation, and commenced a general war, (1675,) which was carried on with great vigour and various success. Though Philip's own tribe supplied no more than five hundred warriors, he had so increased his force by alliances that he was able to bring three thousand men into the field. This formidable host, conducted by a chief who was persuaded that the war must terminate in the total ruin of one or other of the conflicting parties, made exertions of which the Indians were hitherto supposed incapable. Several battles were fought, and all the fury, havoc, and cruelty which distinguish Indian warfare were experienced in their fullest extent by the English. Wherever the enemy marched, their route was marked with slaughter and desolation. Massachusetts and Plymouth were the states that suffered principally from the contest. There, especially, the Indians were so mingled with the European colonists, that there was scarcely a part of the country which was not exposed to danger, or a family which had not to bewail the loss of a relative or friend. In a woodland scene near the village of Deerfield, in Massachusetts, Captain Lothrop and a party of the provincial

troops were suddenly attacked by an Indian force commanded by Philip himself; and, unaware that to encounter such an enemy with effect he ought to place his men in phalanx, Lothrop posted them separately behind trees, where he and every one of them, to the number of ninety-three, were presently shot down; other provincial troops now pressing up with unavailing succour, defeated the Indians and put them to flight. But, more elated with their first success than daunted by their final check, these savages speedily reappeared before the village and shook the scalps and bloody garments of the slaughtered captain and his troop before the eyes of the inhabitants. Deerfield was shortly after deserted by its harassed settlers, and destroyed by the triumphant Indians. It is a truth not yet sufficiently illustrated, that, in all the Indian wars of this period, the savages, from the condition of the country, their own superior acquaintance with it, and their peculiar habits of life and qualities of body and mind, enjoyed advantages which wellnigh counterbalanced the superiority of European science. They seemed to unite the instinct and ferocity of the brutal creation with the art and sagacity of rational beings, and were, in single combat and in the conflict of very small numbers, as superior, as in more numerous encounter they were inferior, to civilized men. Changing their own encampments with facility, and advancing upon those of the colonists with the wary, dexterous secrecy of beasts of prey, with them there was almost always the spirit and audacity of attack, and with their adversaries the disadvantages of defence and the consternation produced by surprise; nor could the colonists obtain the means of attacking, in their turn, without following the savages into forests and swamps, where the benefit of their higher martial qualities was lost, and the system of European warfare rendered impracticable. The savages had long been acquainted with fire-arms, and were remarkably expert in the use of them.

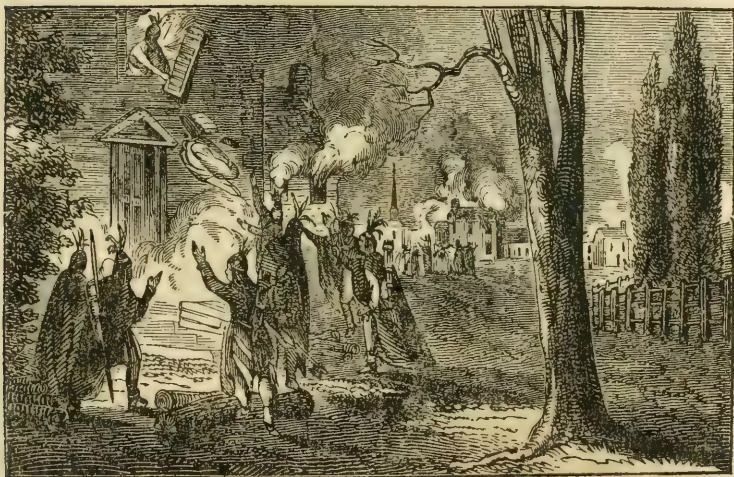
For some time the incursions of the Indians could not be restrained; and every enterprise or skirmish in which they reaped the slightest credit or advantage increased the number of their allies. But the savage artifice which Philip employed, on one occasion, for the purpose of recruiting his forces, recoiled with merited injury on himself. Repairing with a band of his adherents to the territory of a neutral tribe, he caused certain

of the people who belonged to it to be surprised and assassinated ; and then, proceeding to the head-quarters of the tribe, he affirmed that he had seen the murder committed by a party of the Plymouth soldiers. The tribe, in a flame of rage, declared war on the colonists ; but their vindictive sentiments soon took another direction ; for one of the wounded men, having recovered his senses, made a shift to crawl to the habitations of his countrymen, and, though mortally injured, was able, before he expired, to disclose the real author of the tragedy. Revoking their former purpose, the tribe thereupon declared war on Philip, and espoused the cause of his enemies. Hostilities were protracted till near the close of the following year, when the steady efforts and determined courage of the colonists prevailed ; and, after a series of defeats, and the loss of all his family and chief councillors, Philip himself was killed by one of his own tribe whom he had offended. (August, 1676.) Deprived of its chief abettor, the war was soon terminated by the submission of the Indians. Yet to certain of the tribes the colonists sternly denied all terms of capitulation, and warned them, before their surrender, that their treachery had been so gross and unprovoked, and their outrages so atrocious and unpardonable, that they must abide the issue of judicial arbitrament. In conformity with this declaration, some of the chiefs were tried and executed for murder ; and a number of their followers were transported to the West Indies, and sold as slaves. Never before had the people of New England been engaged in hostilities so fierce, so bloody, or so desolating. Many houses and flourishing villages were reduced to ashes ; and in the course of the warfare six hundred persons of European birth or descent, composing the flower and strength of several of the districts, either fell in battle, were massacred in their dwellings, or expired beneath the tortures inflicted by the savages on their captives. The military operations of the colonists in these campaigns were thought, and perhaps justly, to disclose less skill and conduct than had been displayed in the Pequod War. They were, indeed, no longer commanded by the experienced officers who accompanied their ancestors from Europe ; and they were opposed to an enemy much more formidable than the Pequods. But the firm, enduring valour they manifested was worthy of men whose characters were formed under institutions no less

favorable to freedom than virtue, and who fought in defence of all they held dear and valuable. Among other officers, Captain Church, of Massachusetts, and Captain Dennison, of Connecticut, have been particularly celebrated by the provincial historians for their heroic ardour and fortitude. In the commencement of the war, the surprising treachery practised by the hostile Indians naturally excited apprehensions of the defection of the Indian congregations which the missionaries had collected and partly civilized. But not one of these people proved unfaithful to their benefactors.

The Indian warfare by which New England was desolated during this period was not bounded by the hostilities of Philip and his confederates. An attack was made at the same time on New Hampshire and Maine, by the tribes that were situated in the vicinity of these settlements. The Indians complained that they had been defrauded and insulted by some of the English traders in that quarter; but strong suspicions were entertained that their hostilities were promoted by the French government, now re-established in Acadia. The invasion of those territories was distinguished by the usual guile, ferocity, and cruelty of the savages. Many of the inhabitants were massacred, and others carried into captivity. Prompt assistance was rendered to her allies by Massachusetts; and after a variety of sharp engagements, the Indians sustained a considerable defeat. They were, notwithstanding, still able and willing to continue the war; and both their numbers and their animosity were increased by a measure which the provincial government adopted against them. It was proposed to the General Court of Massachusetts to invite the Mohawk tribe, who, from time immemorial, had been the enemies of the Eastern Indians, to make a descent on their territories at this juncture. The lawfulness of using such auxiliaries was questioned by some; but it was deemed a satisfactory answer to the objection, that Abraham confederated with the Amorites for the rescue of his kinsman, Lot, from the hands of a common enemy; and messengers were accordingly despatched to solicit the co-operation of the Mohawks. Little entreaty was necessary to induce them to comply with the invitation; and a band of Mohawk warriors quickly marched against their hereditary foes. The expedition, however, so far from producing the slightest benefit, was attended with serious disadvantage to the

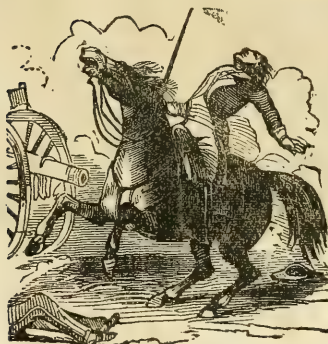
cause of the colonists. The Indians who were their proper enemies suffered very little from the Mohawk invasion ; while some powerful tribes, who had been hitherto at peace with the colonists, exasperated by injuries or affronts which they received from those invaders, now declared war both against them and their English allies. At last, the intelligence of Philip's overthrow, and the probability of stronger forces being thus enabled to march against them, inclined the Eastern Indians to hearken to proposals of peace. The war in this quarter was terminated by a treaty favourable to the Indians, to whom the colonists engaged to pay a certain quantity of corn yearly as a quitrent for their lands.





BATTLE OF AUGHRIM.

ACCESSION OF WILLIAM III. OF ENGLAND--- BATTLES OF THE BOYNE AND OF AU- GHRIM.



WILLIAM, as soon as elected to the throne, began to experience the difficulty of governing a people who were more ready to examine the commands of their superiors than to obey them. (A. D. 1688.)

His reign commenced with an attempt similar to that which had been the principal cause of all the disturbances in the preceding reign, and which had excluded the monarch from the throne. William was a Calvinist, and consequently averse to persecution; he therefore began by



WILLIAM III.



attempting those laws which enjoined uniformity of worship; and, though he could not entirely succeed in his design, a toleration was granted to such dissenters as should take the oaths of allegiance and hold no private conventicle.

In the mean time, James, whose authority was still acknowledged in Ireland, embarked at Brest for that kingdom, and on May 22d arrived at Kinsale. He soon after made his public entry into Dublin, amidst the acclamations of the inhabitants. He found the appearance of things in that country equal to his most sanguine expectations. Tyrconnel, the lord-lieutenant, was devoted to his interests; his old army was steady, and a new one was raised, amounting together to nearly forty thousand men. As soon as the season would permit, he went to lay siege to Londonderry, a town of small importance in itself, but rendered famous by the stand it made on this occasion.

The besieged endured the most poignant sufferings from fatigue and famine, until at last relieved by a storeship that happily broke the boom laid across the river to prevent a supply. The joy of the inhabitants at this unexpected relief was only equalled by the rage and disappointment of the besiegers. The army of James was so dispirited by the success of this enterprise, that they abandoned the siege in the night, and retired with precipitation, after having lost about nine thousand men before the place.

It was upon the opposite sides of the river Boyne that both armies came in sight of each other, inflamed with all the animosities arising from a difference of religion, hatred, and revenge. (A. D. 1690.) The river Boyne at this place was not so deep but that men might wade over on foot; however, the banks were rugged, and rendered dangerous by old houses and ditches, which served to defend the latent enemy. William, who now headed the Protestant army, had no sooner arrived, but he rode along the side of the river in sight of both armies, to make proper observations upon the plan of battle; but in the mean time, being perceived by the enemy, a cannon was privately brought out, and planted against him where he was sitting. The shot killed several of his followers, and he himself was wounded in the shoulder.

Early the next morning, at six o'clock, King William gave orders to force a passage over the river. This the army under-

took in three different places ; and, after a furious cannonading, the battle began with unusual vigour. The Irish troops, though reckoned the best in Europe abroad, have always fought indifferently at home. After an obstinate resistance, they fled with precipitation, leaving the French and Swiss regiments, who came to their assistance, to make the best retreat they could. William led on his horse in person, and contributed by his activity and vigilance to secure the victory. James was not in the battle, but stood aloof during the action on the hill of Dunmore, surrounded with some squadrons of horse, and at intervals was heard to exclaim, when he saw his own troops repulsing those of the enemy, "O, spare my English subjects!"

The Irish lost about fifteen hundred men, and the Protestants about one-third of that number. The victory was splendid, and almost decisive ; but the death of the duke of Schomberg, who was shot as he was crossing the water, seemed to outweigh the whole loss sustained by the enemy.

The last battle fought in favour of James was at Aughrim. (A. D. 1691.) The enemy fought with surprising fury, and the horse were several times repulsed ; but the English, wading through the middle of a bog up to the waist in mud, and rallying with some difficulty on the firm ground on the other side, renewed the combat with great fury. St. Ruth, the Irish general, being killed, his fate so discouraged his troops that they gave way on all sides, and retreated to Limerick, where they resolved to make a final stand, after having lost above five thousand of the flower of their army. Limerick, the last retreat of the Irish forces, made a brave defence ; but soon seeing the enemy advanced within ten paces of the bridge-foot, and perceiving themselves surrounded on all sides, they determined to capitulate ; a negotiation was immediately begun, and hostilities ceased on both sides. The Roman Catholics, by this capitulation, were restored to the enjoyment of those liberties in the exercise of their religion which they had possessed in the reign of King Charles the Second. All persons were indulged with free leave to remove with their families and effects to any other country, except England and Scotland. In consequence of this, above fourteen thousand of those who had fought for King James went over into France, having transports provided by government for conveying them thither.

James was now reduced to the lowest state of despondence ; his designs upon England were quite frustrated, so that nothing was left his friends but the hopes of assassinating the monarch on the throne. (A. D. 1692.) These base attempts, as barbarous as they were useless, were not entirely disagreeable to the temper of James. It is said he encouraged and proposed them ; but they all proved unserviceable to his cause, and only ended in the destruction of the undertakers. From that time till he died, which was about seven years, he continued to reside at St. Germain's, a pensioner on the bounty of Louis, and assisted by occasional liberalities from his daughter and friends in England. He died on the sixteenth day of September, in the year 1700, after having laboured under a tedious sickness ; and many miracles, as the people thought, were wrought at his tomb. Indeed, the latter part of his life was calculated to inspire the superstitious with reverence for his piety. He subjected himself to acts of uncommon penance and mortification. He frequently visited the poor monks of La Trappe, who were edified by his humble and pious deportment. His pride and arbitrary temper seemed to have vanished with his greatness ; he became affable, kind, and easy to all his dependants ; and at his last illness conjured his son to prefer religion to every worldly advantage—a counsel which that prince strictly obeyed. He died with great marks of devotion, and was interred, at his own request, in the church of the English Benedictines at Paris, without any funeral solemnity.

William, upon accepting of the crown, was resolved to preserve, as much as he was able, that share of prerogative which still was left him. But at length he became fatigued with opposing the laws which parliament every day were laying round his authority, and gave up the contest. He admitted every restraint upon the prerogative in England, upon condition of being properly supplied with the means of humbling the power of France. War, and the balance of power in Europe, were all he knew, or indeed desired to understand. Provided the parliament furnished him with supplies for these purposes, he permitted them to rule the internal polity at their pleasure. For the prosecution of the war with France, the sums of money granted to him were incredible. The nation, not content with furnishing him with such sums of money as they were capable

of raising by the taxes of the year, mortgaged these taxes, and involved themselves in debts which they have never since been able to discharge. For all that profusion of wealth granted to maintain the imaginary balance of Europe, England received in return the empty reward of military glory in Flanders, and the consciousness of having given their allies, particularly the Dutch, frequent opportunities of being ungrateful.

The war with France continued during the greatest part of this king's reign ; but at length the treaty of Ryswick (A. D. 1697) put an end to those contentions, in which England had engaged without policy and came off without advantage.

In the general pacification, her interests seemed entirely deserted ; and for all the treasures she had sent to the continent, and all the blood which she had shed there, the only equivalent she received was an acknowledgment of King William's title from the king of France.

William was naturally of a very feeble constitution ; and it was by this time almost exhausted by a series of continual disquietude and action. He had endeavoured to repair his constitution, or at least to conceal its decays, by exercise and riding. On the twenty-first day of February, in riding to Hampton-court from Kensington, his horse fell under him, and he was thrown with such violence that his collar-bone was fractured. His attendants conveyed him to the palace at Hampton-court, where the fracture was reduced, and in the evening he returned to Kensington in his coach. The jolting of the carriage disunited the fracture once more, and the bones were again replaced, under Bidloo, his physician. This in a robust constitution would have been a trifling misfortune ; but in him it was fatal. For some time he appeared in a fair way of recovery ; but, falling asleep on his couch, he was seized with a shivering, which terminated in a fever and diarrhoea, which soon became dangerous and desperate. Perceiving his end approaching, the objects of his former care still lay next his heart ; and the fate of Europe seemed to remove the sensations he might be supposed to feel for his own. The earl of Albemarle arriving from Holland, he conferred with him in private on the posture of affairs abroad. Two days after, having received the sacrament from Archbishop Tenison, he expired in the fifty-second year of his age, after having reigned thirteen years.





QUEEN ANNE.



MARLBOROUGH.

ACCESSION OF QUEEN ANNE OF ENGLAND.



ANNE, married to Prince George of Denmark, ascended the throne in the thirty-eighth year of her age, to the general satisfaction of all parties. (A. D. 1702.) She was the second daughter of King James, by his first wife, the daughter of Chancellor Hyde, afterwards earl of Clarendon.

Upon coming to the crown, she resolved to declare war against France, and communicated her intentions to the House of Commons, by whom it was approved, and war was proclaimed accordingly.

This declaration of war, on the part of the English, was seconded by similar declarations by the Dutch and Germans on the same day. The French monarch could not suppress his anger at such a combination; but his chief resentment fell upon the Dutch. He declared, with great emotion, that, as for these gentlemen pedlars, the Dutch, they should one day repent their insolence and presumption in declaring war against one whose power they had formerly felt and dreaded. However, the affairs of the allies were no way influenced by his threats. The

duke of Marlborough had his views gratified in being appointed general of the English forces; and he was still farther flattered by the Dutch, who, though the earl of Athlone had a right to share the command, appointed Marlborough generalissimo of the allied army. And it must be confessed, that few men shone more, either in debate or action, than he; serene in the midst of danger, and indefatigable in the cabinet; so that he became the most formidable enemy to France that England ever produced, since the conquering times of Cressy and Agincourt.

A great part of the history of this reign consists in battles fought upon the continent, which, though of very little advantage to the interest of England, were very great additions to its honour. These triumphs, it is true, are passed away, and nothing remains of them but the names of Blenheim, Ramilies, Oudenarde, and Malplaquet, where the allied army gained great, but, with respect to England, useless victories.

A conquest of much greater national importance was gained with less expense of blood and treasure in Spain. The ministry of England, understanding that the French were employed in equipping a strong squadron in Brest, sent out Sir Cloudesly Shovel and Sir George Rooke to watch their motions. Sir George, however, had further orders to convoy a body of forces in transport-ships to Barcelona, upon which a fruitless attack was made by the prince of Hesse. Finding no hopes, therefore, from this expedition, in two days after the troops were re-embarked, Sir George Rooke, joined by Sir Cloudesly, called a council of war on board the fleet, as they lay off the coast of Africa. In this they resolved to make an attempt upon Gibraltar, a city then belonging to the Spaniards, at that time ill provided with a garrison, as neither expecting nor fearing such an attempt.

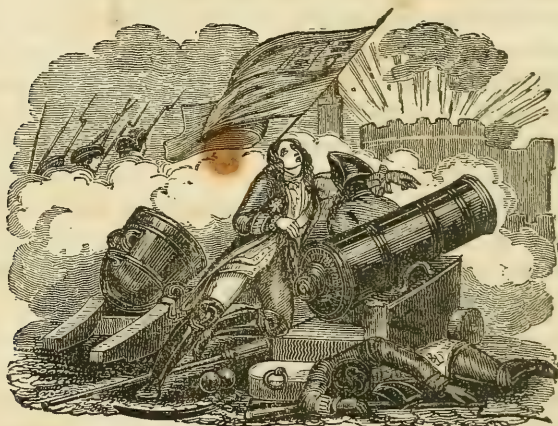
The town of Gibraltar stands upon a tongue of land, as the mariners call it, and defended by a rock inaccessible on every side but one. The prince of Hesse landed his troops, to the number of eight hundred, on the continent adjoining, and summoned the town to surrender, but without effect. Next day the admiral gave orders for cannonading the town; and, perceiving that the enemy were driven from their fortifications at a place called the South Mole Head, ordered Captain Whitaker to arm all the boats and assault that quarter. Those officers

who happened to be nearest the mole immediately manned their boats without orders, and entered the fortifications sword in hand. But they were premature ; for the Spaniards sprung a mine, by which two lieutenants and about one hundred men were killed or wounded. Nevertheless, the two captains, Hicks and Jumper, took possession of a platform, and kept their ground until they were sustained by Captain Whitaker and the rest of the seamen, who took a redoubt between the mole and the town by storm. Then the governor capitulated, and the prince of Hesse entered the place, amazed at the success of the attempt, considering the strength of the fortifications. When the news of this conquest was brought to England, it was for some time in debate whether it was a capture worth thanking the admiral for. It was at last considered as unworthy public gratitude ; and, while the duke of Marlborough was extolled for useless services, Sir George Rooke was left to neglect, and soon displaced from his command for having so essentially served his country. A striking instance, that, even in the most enlightened age, popular applause is most usually misplaced. Gibraltar has ever since remained in the possession of the English, and continues of the utmost use in refitting that part of the navy destined to annoy an enemy, or protect their trade in the Mediterranean. Here the English have a repository capable of containing all thing necessary for the repairing of fleets or the equipment of armies.

While the English were thus victorious by land and sea, a new scene of contention was opened on the side of Spain, where the ambition of the European princes exerted itself with the same fury that had filled the rest of the continent. Philip the Fourth, grandson of Louis the Fourteenth, had been placed upon the throne of that kingdom, and had been received with the joyful concurrence of the greatest part of his subjects. He had also been nominated successor to the crown by the late king of Spain's will. But, in a former treaty among the powers of Europe, Charles, son of the emperor of Germany, was appointed heir to that crown ; and this treaty had been guaranteed by France herself, though she now resolved to reverse that consent in favour of a descendant of the house of Bourbon. Charles was still farther led on to put in for the crown of Spain by the invitations of the Catalonians, who declared in his fa-

vous, and by the assistance of the English and the Portuguese, who promised to arm in his cause. He was furnished with two hundred transports, thirty ships of war, and nine thousand men, for the conquest of that extensive empire. But the earl of Peterborough, a man of romantic bravery, offered to conduct them; and his single service was thought equivalent to armies.

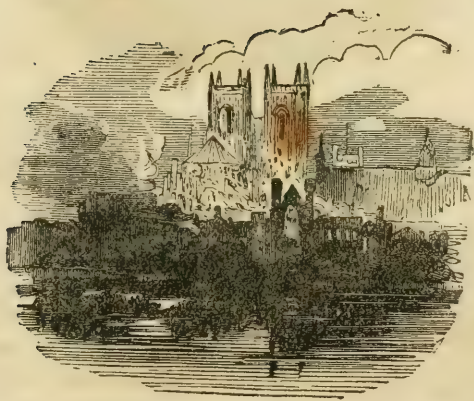
The earl of Peterborough was one of the most singular and extraordinary men of the age in which he lived. When yet but fifteen, he fought against the Moors in Africa; at twenty he assisted in compassing the revolution, and he now carried on the war in Spain almost at his own expense; his friendship for the duke Charles being one of his chief motives to this great undertaking. He was deformed in his person; but of a mind the most generous, honourable, and active. His first attempt upon landing in Spain was the taking of Barcelona, a strong city, with a garrison of five thousand men, while the whole army amounted to little more than nine thousand. The prince of Hesse was killed in this action.



DEATH OF THE PRINCE OF HESSE AT BARCELONA.

These successes, however, were but of short continuance; Peterborough being recalled, and the army under Charles being commanded by the lord Galway. This nobleman, having received intelligence that the enemy, under the command of the duke of Berwick, was posted near the town of Almanza, he advanced thither to give him battle. The conflict began about

two in the afternoon, and the whole front of each army was fully engaged. The centre, consisting chiefly of battalions from Great Britain and Holland, seemed at first victorious; but the Portuguese horse, by whom they were supported, betaking themselves to flight in the first charge, the English troops were flanked and surrounded on every side. In this dreadful emergency they formed themselves into a square, and retired to an eminence, where, being ignorant of the country and destitute of all supplies, they were obliged to surrender prisoners of war to the number of ten thousand men. This victory was complete and decisive; and all Spain, except the province of Catalonia, returned to their duty to Philip, their sovereign.





EXPLOITS OF THE BUCCANEERS.



AFTER the failure of the mines of Hispaniola, which were never rich, and the conquest of the two extensive empires of Mexico and Peru, where the precious metals were found in the greatest profusion, that valuable island was entirely neglected by the Spaniards. The greater part of its once flourishing cities were deserted by their inhabitants, and the few planters that remained sunk into the most enervating indolence. The necessaries, however, and even many of the luxuries of life were there found in abundance. All the European animals had multiplied exceedingly, but especially the horned cattle, which

were become in a manner wild, and wandered about in large droves, without any regular owner. Allured by these conveniences, certain French and English adventurers, since known by the name of Buccaneers or freebooters, had taken possession of the small island of Tortuga, as early as the year 1632, and found little difficulty, under such favourable circumstances, of establishing themselves on the northern coast of Hispaniola. They at first subsisted chiefly by the hunting of wild cattle. Part of the beef they ate fresh, part they dried, and the hides they sold to the masters of such vessels as came upon the coast, and who furnished them in return with clothes, liquors, fire-arms, powder, and shot. But the wild cattle at length becoming scarce, the buccaneers were under the necessity of turning their industry to other objects. The sober-minded men applied themselves to the cultivation of the ground, which abundantly requited their toil, while those of a bold and restless disposition associated themselves with pirates and outlaws of all nations, and formed the most terrible band of ravagers that ever infested the ocean. To these ravagers, however, rendered famous by their courage and their crimes, France and England are indebted, in some measure, for the prosperity of their settlements in the West Indies.

Nothing could appear less formidable than the first armaments of the piratical buccaneers, who took the name of *Brothers of the Coast*. Having formed themselves, like the hunters of wild cattle, into small societies, they made their excursions in an open boat, which generally contained between twenty and thirty men, exposed to all the intemperature of the climate, to the burning heat of the day, and the chilling damps of the night. The natural inconveniencies connected with this mode of life were augmented by those arising from their licentious disposition.

A love of freedom, which, duly regulated, cannot be too much cherished, rendered the buccaneers averse against all those restraints which civilized men usually impose on each other for their common happiness; and, as the authority which they had conferred on their captain was chiefly confined to giving orders in battle, they lived in the greatest disorder. Like savages, having no apprehension of want, nor taking any care to guard against famine by prudent economy, they were fre-

quently exposed to all the extremities of hunger and thirst. But deriving, even from their distresses, a courage superior to every danger, the sight of a sail transported them to a degree of frenzy. They seldom deliberated on the mode of attack; but their custom was to board the ships as soon as possible. The smallness of their own vessels, and their dexterity in managing them, preserved them from the fire of the enemy. They presented only to the broadside of the ship their slender prows, filled with expert marksmen, who fired at the enemy's port-holes with such exactness as to confound the most experienced gunners. And when they could fix their grappling tackle, the largest trading vessels were generally obliged to strike.

Although the buccaneers, when under the pressure of necessity, attacked the ships of every nation, those belonging to the subjects of Spain were more especially marked out as the objects of their piracy. They thought that the cruelties which the Spaniards had exercised on the natives of the New World were a sufficient apology for any violence that could be committed against them. Accommodating their conscience to this belief, which perhaps, unknown to themselves, was rather dictated by the richness of the Spanish vessels than by any real sense of religion or equity, they never embarked in an expedition without publicly praying to heaven for its success; nor did they ever return loaded with booty without solemnly returning thanks to God for their good fortune.

This booty was originally carried to the island of Tortuga, the common rendezvous of the buccaneers, and then their only place of safety. But afterward the French went to some of the ports of Hispaniola, where they had established themselves in defiance of the Spaniards; and the English to those of Jamaica, where they could dispose of their prizes to more advantage, and lay out their money more agreeably, either in business or pleasure.

Before the distribution of the spoil, each adventurer held up his hand, and protested that he had secreted nothing of what he had taken; and if any one was convicted of perjury, a case that seldom occurred, he was punished in a manner truly exemplary, and worthy the imitation of better men. He was expelled the community, and left, as soon as an opportunity

offered, upon some desert island, as a wretch unworthy to live in society, even with the destroyers of their species!

After providing for the sick, the wounded, the maimed, and settling their several shares, the buccaneers indulged themselves in all kinds of licentiousness. Their debauches, which they carried to the greatest excess, were limited only by the want that such prodigality occasioned. If they were asked what satisfaction they could find in dissipating so rapidly what they had earned with so much jeopardy, they made this very ingenious reply:—"Exposed, as we are, to a variety of perils, our life is totally different from that of other men. Why should we, who are alive to-day, and run the hazard of being dead to-morrow, think of hoarding!—Studious only of enjoying the present hour, we never think of that which is to come." This has ever been the language of men in such circumstances: the desire of dissipating life, not solicitude for the preservation of existence, seems to increase in proportion to the danger of losing it.

The ships that sailed from Europe to America seldom tempted the avidity of the first buccaneers, as the merchandise they carried could not readily have been sold in the West Indies in those early times. But they eagerly watched the Spanish vessels on their return to Europe, when certain they were partly laden with treasure. They commonly followed the galleons and flota, employed in transporting the produce of the mines of Mexico and Peru, as far as the channel of Bahama; and if, by any accident, a ship was separated from the fleet, they instantly beset her, and she seldom escaped them. They even ventured to attack several ships at once; and the Spaniards, who considered them as demons, and trembled at their approach, commonly surrendered if they came to close quarters.

A remarkable instance of this timidity on the one side, and temerity on the other, occurs in the history of Peter Legrand, a native of Dieppe in Normandy, who, with a small vessel, carrying no more than twenty-eight men and four guns, had the boldness to attack the vice-admiral of the galleons. Resolved to conquer or die, and having exacted an oath to the same purpose from his crew, he ordered the carpenter to bore a hole in the side of his own vessel, that all hope of escape might be cut off. This was no sooner done than he boarded the Spanish ship, with a sword in one hand and a pistol in the other, and,

bearing down all resistance, entered the great cabin, attended by a few of the most desperate of his associates. He there found the admiral surrounded by his officers, presented a pistol to his breast, and ordered him to surrender. Meanwhile, the rest of the buccaneers took possession of the gun-room, and seized the arms. Struck with terror and amazement, the Spaniards demanded quarter. Like examples are numerous in the history of the buccaneers.

The Spaniards, almost reduced to despair, by finding themselves a continual prey to those ravagers, diminished the number of their ships, and the colonies gave up their connections with each other. These humiliating precautions, however, served but to increase the boldness of the buccaneers. They had hitherto invaded the Spanish settlements only to procure provisions; but no sooner did they find their captures decrease, than they determined to procure by land that wealth which the sea denied them. They accordingly formed themselves into larger bodies, and plundered many of the richest and strongest towns in the New World. Maracaibo, Campeachy, Vera Cruz, Porto-Bello, and Carthagena, on this side of the continent, severely felt the effects of their fury; and Quayaquil, Panama, and many other places on the coast of the South Sea, were not more fortunate in their resistance, or treated with greater lenity. In a word, the buccaneers, the most extraordinary set of men that ever appeared upon the face of the globe, but whose duration was transitory, subjected to their arms, without a regular system of government, without laws, without any permanent subordination, and even without revenue, cities and castles which have baffled the utmost efforts of national force; and if conquest, not plunder, had been their objects, they might have made themselves masters of all Spanish America.

Among the buccaneers who first acquired distinction in this new mode of plundering, was Montbars, a gentleman of Languedoc. Having by chance, in his infancy, met with a circumstantial, and perhaps exaggerated, account of the cruelties practised by the Spaniards in the conquest of the New World, he conceived a strong antipathy against a nation that had committed so many enormities. His heated imagination, which he loved to indulge, continually represented to him innumerable multitudes of innocent people, murdered by a brood of savage

monsters nursed in the mountains of Castile. The unhappy victims, whose names were ever present to his memory, seemed to call upon him for vengeance: he longed to imbrue his hands in Spanish blood, and to retaliate the cruelties of the Spaniards, on the same shores where they had been perpetrated. He accordingly embarked on board a French ship bound to the West Indies, about the middle of the last century, and joined the buccaneers, whose natural ferocity he inflamed. Humanity in him became the source of the most unfeeling barbarity. The Spaniards suffered so much from his fury, that he acquired the name of the *Exterminator*.

Michael de Baso and Francis Lolonois were also greatly renowned for their exploits, both by sea and land. Their most important, though not their most fortunate, enterprise, was that of the gulf of Venezuela, with eight vessels and six hundred and sixty associates. This gulf runs a considerable way up into the country, and communicates with the lake of Maracaibo by a narrow strait. That strait is defended by a castle called *la Barra*, which the buccaneers took, and nailed up the cannon. (A. D. 1667.) They then passed the bar, and advanced to the city of Maracaibo, built on the western coast of the lake, at the distance of about ten leagues from its mouth. But, to their inexpressible disappointment, they found it utterly deserted and unfurnished; the inhabitants, apprized of their danger, having removed to the other side of the lake with their most valuable effects.

If the buccaneers had not spent a fortnight in riot and debauchery, they would have found at Gibraltar, a town near the extremity of the lake, every thing which the people of Maracaibo had carried off, in order to elude their rapacity. On the contrary, by their imprudent delay, they met with fortifications newly erected, which they had the glory of reducing at the expense of much blood and the mortification of finding another empty town. Exasperated at this second disappointment, the buccaneers set fire to Gibraltar; and Maracaibo would have shared the same fate had it not been ransomed. Besides the bribe they received for their lenity, they took with them the bells, images, and all the ornamental furniture of the churches, intending, as they said, to build a chapel in the island of Tortuga, and to consecrate that part of their spoils to sacred uses!

Like other plunderers of more exalted character, they had no idea of the absurdity of offering to heaven the fruits of robbery and murder, procured in direct violation of its laws.

But of all the buccaneers, French or English, none was so uniformly successful, or executed so many great and daring enterprises, as Henry Morgan, a native of the principality of Wales. While De Basco, Lolonois, and their companions, were squandering at Tortuga the spoils they had acquired in the gulf of Venezuela, Morgan sailed from Jamaica to attack Porto-Bello; and his measures were so well concerted, that, soon after his landing, he surprised the sentinels, and made himself master of the town, before the Spaniards could put themselves in a posture of defence. (A. D. 1668.)

In hopes of reducing with the same facility the citadel, or chief castle, into which the citizens had conveyed their most valuable property and all the plate belonging to the churches, Morgan bethought himself of an expedient that discovers his knowledge of national character, as well as of human nature in general. He compelled the priests, nuns, and other women whom he had made prisoners, to plant the scaling ladders against the walls of the fortress, from a persuasion that the gallantry and superstition of the Spaniards would not suffer them to fire on the objects of their love and veneration. But he found himself deceived in this flattering conjecture. The Spanish governor, who was a resolute soldier, used his utmost efforts to destroy every one that approached the works. Morgan and his English associates, however, carried the place by storm, in spite of all opposition, and found in it, besides a vast quantity of rich merchandise, bullion and specie equivalent to one hundred thousand pounds sterling.

With this booty, Morgan and his crew returned to Jamaica, where he immediately planned a new enterprise. Understanding that De Basco and Lolonois had been disappointed in the promised plunder of Maracaibo by their imprudent delay, he resolved from emulation, no less than avidity, to surprise that place. With this view, he collected fifteen vessels, carrying nine hundred and sixty men. These ravagers entered the gulf of Venezuela unobserved, silenced the fort that defends this passage to the lake of Maracaibo, and found the town, as formerly, totally deserted. (A. D. 1669.) But they were so fortu-

rate as to discover the chief citizens, and the greater part of their wealth, in the neighbouring woods. Not satisfied, however, with this booty, Morgan proceeded to Gibraltar, which he found in the same desolate condition; and, while he was attempting, by the most horrid cruelties, to extort from such of the inhabitants as had been seized a discovery of their hidden treasures, he was informed of the arrival of three Spanish men-of-war at the entrance of the lake.

At this intelligence, which was confirmed by a boat despatched to reconnoitre the enemy, the heart of the bravest buccaneer sank within him. But, although Morgan considered his condition as desperate, his presence of mind did not forsake him. Concealing his apprehensions, he sent a letter to Don Alonzo del Campo, the Spanish admiral, boldly demanding a ransom for the city of Maracaibo. The admiral's answer was resolute, and excluded all hope of working upon his fears. "I am come," said he, "to dispute your passage out of the lake, and I have the means of doing it. Nevertheless, if you will submit to surrender, with humility, all the booty and prisoners you have taken, I will suffer you to pass, and permit you to return to your own country without trouble or molestation. But if you reject this offer, or hesitate to comply, I will order boats from Caracas, in which I will embark my troops, and, sailing to Maracaibo, will put every man of you to the sword. This is my final determination. Be prudent, therefore, and do not abuse my bounty by an ungrateful return. I have with me," added he, "very good troops, who desire nothing more ardently than to revenge on you and your people all the cruelties and depredations which you have committed upon the Spanish nation in America."

The moment Morgan received this letter, he called together his followers; and, after acquainting them with its contents, desired them to deliberate whether they would give up all their plunder, in order to secure their liberty, or fight for it? They unanimously answered, that they would rather lose the last drop of their blood than resign a booty which had been purchased with so much peril. Morgan, however, sensible of his dangerous situation, endeavoured to compromise the matter, but in vain. The Spanish admiral continued to insist on his first conditions. When Morgan was made acquainted with this inflexi

bility, he coolly replied : " If Don Alonzo will not allow me to pass, I will find means to pass without his permission." He accordingly made a division of the spoil, that each man might have his own property to defend ; and, having filled a vessel, which he had taken from the enemy, with preparations of gunpowder and other combustible materials, he gallantly proceeded to the mouth of the lake ; burnt two of the Spanish ships, took one, and, by making a feint of disembarking men, in order to attack the fort by land, he diverted the attention of the garrison to that side, while he passed the bar with his whole fleet on the other without receiving any damage.

The success of Morgan, like that of all ambitious leaders, served only to stimulate him to yet greater undertakings. Having disposed of his booty at Port-Royal in Jamaica, he again put to sea with a larger fleet and a more numerous body of adventurers, (A. D. 1670 ;) and after reducing the island of St. Catharine, where he procured a supply of naval and military stores, he steered for the river Chagres, the only channel that could conduct him to Panama, the grand object of his armament. At the mouth of this river stood a strong castle, built upon a rock, and defended by a good garrison, which threatened to baffle all the efforts of the buccaneers, when an arrow, shot from the bow of an Indian, lodged in the eye of one of those resolute men. With wonderful firmness and presence of mind, he pulled the arrow from the wound, and, wrapping one of its ends in tow, put it into his musket, which was already loaded, and discharged it into the fort, where the roofs of the houses were of straw, and the sides of wood, conformable to the custom of building in that country. The burning arrow fell on the roof of one of the houses, which immediately took fire—a circumstance that threw the Spaniards into the utmost consternation, as they were afraid every moment of perishing by the rapid approach of the flames, or the blowing up of the powder-magazine. After the death of the governor, who bravely perished with his sword in his hand, at the head of a few determined men, the place surrendered to the assailants.

This chief obstacle being removed, Morgan and his associates, leaving the larger vessels under guard, sailed up the Chagres in boats to Cruces, and thence proceeded by land to Panama. On

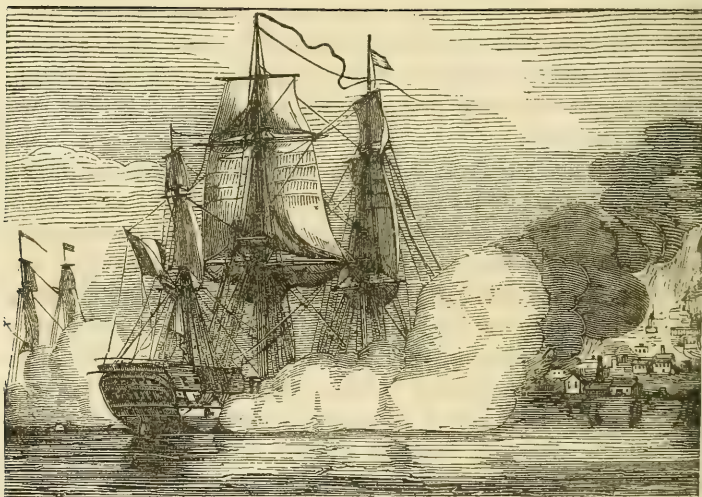
the savanna, a spacious plain before the city, the Spaniards made several attempts to repulse the ferocious invaders, but without effect. The buccaneers gained a decided superiority in every encounter. Foreseeing the overthrow of their military protectors, the unarmed inhabitants sought refuge in the woods; so that Morgan took quiet possession of Panama, and deliberately pillaged it for some days.

But Morgan met at Panama with what he valued no less than his rich booty. A fair captive inflamed his savage heart with love; and, finding all his solicitations ineffectual, as neither his person nor character was calculated to inspire the object of his passion with favourable sentiments toward him, he resolved to second his assiduities with a seasonable mixture of force. "Stop, ruffian!" cried she, as she wildly sprung from his arms; "stop! thinkest thou that thou canst ravish from me mine honour as thou hast wrested from me my fortune and my liberty? No! be assured that my soul shall sooner be separated from this body:" and she drew a poniard from her bosom, which she would have plunged into his heart, if he had not avoided the blow.

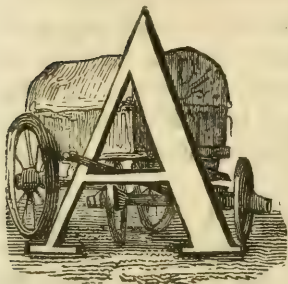
Enraged at such a return for his fondness, Morgan threw this virtuous beauty into a loathsome dungeon, and endeavoured to break her spirit by severities. But his followers becoming clamorous at being kept so long in a state of inactivity by a caprice which they could not comprehend, he was obliged to listen to their importunities and give up his amorous pursuit. As a prelude to their return, the booty was divided; and Morgan's own share, in the pillage of this expedition, is said to have amounted to one hundred thousand pounds sterling. He carried all his wealth to Jamaica, and never afterwards engaged in any piratical enterprise.

The defection of Morgan, and several other principal leaders, who sought and found an asylum in the bosom of that civil society whose laws they had so atrociously violated, together with the total separation of the English and French buccaneers, in consequence of the war between the two nations which followed the revolution in 1688, broke the force of those powerful plunderers. The king of Spain being then in alliance with England, she repressed the piracies of her subjects in the West Indies. (A. D. 1690.) The French buccaneers continued

their depredations, and with no small success, till the peace of Ryswick in 1697; when all differences between France and Spain having been adjusted, a stop was everywhere put to hostilities, and not only the association, but the very name of this extraordinary set of men soon became extinct. They were insensibly lost among the other European inhabitants of the West Indies.



ACCESSION OF GEORGE I. OF ENGLAND.



NNE died August 1, 1714, and George, elector of Hanover, was immediately proclaimed. He arrived in England, September 16, and was met at Greenwich, where he landed, by many persons of high office and rank. Among these was the duke of Marlborough, who had lately returned to England, and whom, both at this time and ever after, the king treated with great dis-

tinction. George, at his accession, was in the fifty-fifth year of his age.

George was a man of plain, steady understanding, grave in his manner, and simple in his habits, and had the reputation of being a sagacious politician. He spoke English very imperfectly, and was too much of a German in all his notions and habits to be very popular in England.

George I. had one son and a daughter. The son had married Caroline, daughter of the margravine of Anspach, and at the time of his father's coming to the throne had three young daughters. He was created prince of Wales, and came with his family to England; as did also one of the king's brothers, the bishop of Osnaburg, who was created duke of York.

The spirit of party still ran very high in England. (A. D. 1715.) The king showed a decided preference for the Whigs. At this the Tories were much exasperated, and they soon began to show a spirit of disaffection to the house of Hanover. Lord Oxford, the great Tory leader, was sent to the Tower, where he remained two years; but the two houses of parliament disagreed so violently as to the proceedings to be taken in regard to him, that he was at last acquitted without a trial. The duke of Ormond and Lord Bolingbroke were impeached, but escaped +

France. They were then attainted, and their names were erased from the list of English peers.

These severities towards the leaders of the Tories excited great murmurs; and the Jacobites, who had been very active ever since the queen's death, made a strong party in Scotland. The earl of Mar proclaimed Prince James Stuart, September 6, 1715, and set up his standard. James, however, was not then in a condition to come and take the crown that was proffered him.

Louis XIV., who had given the Pretender a small supply of arms and ammunition, with the promise of more, died on the first of September this year, and the duke of Orleans, who was regent of France during the minority of Louis XV., (the infant great-grandson of the late king,) was not a friend to the Pretender's cause.

The earl of Mar, nevertheless, continued in arms, and at length assembled a body of ten thousand men, which was farther increased by some English Jacobites. On the other hand, the duke of Argyle, who was appointed commander of the king's forces in Scotland, advanced against the rebels at the head of his own clans, assisted by some troops from Ireland.

In the mean time the Pretender's party in the north of England organized themselves in battle array; but they were encountered by the militia and other troops sent against them, and were punished for their attempt. Some were hanged at Tyburn; twenty-two persons were executed in Lancashire, and about one thousand were sent to the North American colonies.

On December 22, the Pretender, after having been long expected, at last arrived in Scotland. He came attended only by six gentlemen. The earl of Mar soon joined him, and he was proclaimed king; and in the expectation that all Scotland would rise in his cause as one man, he fixed January 16, 1716, for his coronation at Scone. But before that day arrived, he was so closely pursued by the duke of Argyle, that he was glad to abandon his rash enterprise, and to get back again to France.

The attention of the nation was chiefly occupied by a scheme called the South Sea Scheme. (A. D. 1720.) It was principally contrived by Sir John Blunt, a busy, speculating man; and the object of it was to enable a company of merchants, called the South Sea Company, to buy up all the national debts and concentrate them into one fund.



RISING OF THE HIGHLANDERS IN 1715.

Many persons, in the expectation of receiving a high interest, advanced large sums of money towards this purchase; but in a few months the whole was discovered to be a fraudulent scheme. The principal actors in it were punished by parliament, and measures were adopted to give some redress to the injured parties; but a very large number of the imprudent speculators suffered severely.

The king, who was much attached to Hanover, (A. D. 1727,) and had visited it several times, set out with the intention of going there once more. He had got as far as Delden, a small town near the frontiers of Germany, when he was taken extremely ill. He had set his mind on reaching his brother's palace at Osnaburg, and ordered his people to hasten forwards. But he did not live to get there. It was found, when the carriage stopped at the gate of the palace, that he had already breathed his last. He died June 11, 1727, in the sixty-eighth year of his age, and the thirteenth of his reign.



DEATH OF COLONEL GARDINER AT PRESTON PANS.

ACCESSION OF GEORGE II.—REBELLION OF 1745.



HE news of the sudden death of George I. reached London June 14, and George II. was proclaimed the next day. He was in the forty-fifth year of his age. His abilities were inferior to those of his father, and his temper hasty. He was simple in all his tastes and habits, and singularly methodical. His

strongest feeling, and that which more than any other governed his conduct, was his preference of Hanover to England.

Queen Caroline united brilliant beauty to a strong understanding and great goodness of heart. When George II. came to the throne, he had two sons; Frederick, the eldest, was twenty years old; William, afterwards duke of Cumberland, was only six years old. He had also four daughters.

The prince of Wales married the princess of Saxe-Gotha. (A. D. 1736.) In 1737 the queen died, and the king's grief for her loss was sincere and excessive. In the same year a war broke out between England and Spain; and Admiral Vernon took Porto-Bello, a Spanish settlement on the isthmus of Darien.

About this time the peace of the continent was disturbed by a contest for the imperial throne. (A. D. 1743.) The emperor Charles VI. died, leaving an only daughter, Maria Theresa, married to prince Francis of Lorraine. The claim of Maria Theresa was disputed by the elector of Bavaria; and nearly all Europe entered into the quarrel. The king of France took the part of the elector of Bavaria.

The king of England engaged on the side of Maria Theresa, and sent to the continent an army of 16,000 men, under Lord Stair, which was afterwards increased by an equal number of

Hanoverians. In the cause of Maria Theresa, the king and his son, the duke of Cumberland, displayed considerable military talent; but England, in the mean time, was suffering by the projects of the Pretender.

In the beginning of 1744, an invasion of England had been attempted by a French force of 15,000 men, under the convoy of twenty ships of the line. James himself, not having sufficient activity to engage personally in this expedition, deputed prince Charles Edward, his eldest son, to join in it. But though this expedition was rendered abortive, Prince Charles ventured in the following year to try his fortune in the northern part of the island.

Having procured a sum of money, and a small supply of arms, on his own credit, Prince Charles sent to inform his friends in Scotland that he hoped soon to be with them. In June, 1745, he embarked with a few Scotch and Irish gentlemen in a small frigate; but the vessel which carried a supply of arms for the expedition was disabled in the passage. Meanwhile the frigate pursued her destined course. On the 16th of July, Charles landed at Borodale, in Lochaber, and was soon joined by a considerable number of Highlanders.

A moment more favourable for this enterprise could not have been chosen. The king of England was in Hanover; the duke of Cumberland, with the most serviceable part of the army, was in Flanders; and the ministers and parliament were divided by political disputes; but Charles could not make the most of these advantages; his want of arms, and the loss of the officers who were to have come, but were prevented, disabling him from making any attack on the strong English garrisons, which were in the heart of the country, at Fort William and Fort Augustus.

The news of the Pretender's arrival in Scotland threw all England into commotion. The lords regent, to whom the conduct of affairs had been left during the king's absence, sent to hasten his return; and in the mean time issued a proclamation, offering a reward of 30,000*l.* to any one who would seize Charles Stuart. Charles, in retaliation, set the same price on the head of the elector of Hanover.

The prince, advancing to Perth, proclaimed his father king. His army still kept gathering numbers; and, September 16, he took possession of the town of Edinburgh. The castle, how-

ever, still held out. General Guest, an experienced officer, commanded there; and, having a strong garrison, was determined to stand a siege.

Sir John Cope, meanwhile, who commanded the king's forces in Scotland, approached Edinburgh with all the troops he could muster; and, September 20th, he encamped about nine miles from the town, at Prestonpans. The next morning Charles marched to meet him; and the half-armed Highlanders attacked the king's troops with so much fury that the cavalry fled with precipitation. The total defeat of the infantry soon followed. They fled, leaving on the field all their baggage, and, what the prince wanted most of all, their arms, ammunition, and a train of field artillery. In this action Colonel Gardiner was killed.

By this victory the rebels acquired possession of a considerable part of Scotland. The castle of Edinburgh still held out, and was blockaded by the rebels. Charles, however, at the earnest entreaty of the inhabitants, whom General Guest had alarmed by the threat of destroying the town, and indeed by actually beginning to fire on it, *raised the blockade*; that is, he ceased the attempt to take the castle—he withdrew his troops.

The popularity at this time of the Pretender's cause was greatly increased by the good conduct of the prince himself, who showed himself both vigorous in action and prudent in council, and bore his success with moderation. The king of France, seeing that his affairs were prosperous, sent him a supply of small arms, cannon, and officers, and promised him that a large body of French should be landed in the south of England.

On this assurance Charles passed the borders of Scotland. He entered Carlisle, November 6th. Leaving a garrison there, he marched onwards; and on November 29th fixed his headquarters at Manchester. He was there joined by about two hundred English jacobites, and then proceeded to Derby.

The rebel army was now within four days' march of London. Indescribable alarm and consternation prevailed in that city. Those who were in London fled into the country, while those in the country flew to London, every person thinking the place he was in the place of danger. The king, who had returned from Germany on the first summons, was all activity, and intended to have taken the field in person.

RISE OF SCOTCH CLANS IN 1746.



Prince Charles's army was sometimes successful; but a final battle between his adherents and the English army took place at Culloden, in Scotland, April, 1746.

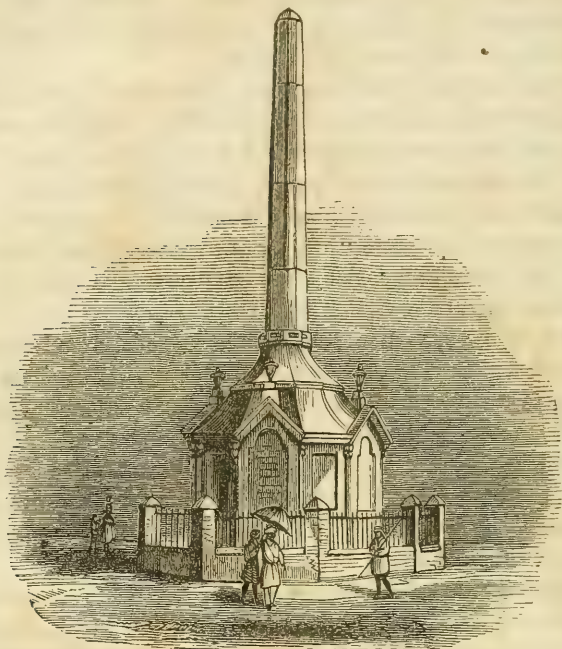
The fatal action of Culloden over, Charles, seeing that all was lost, rode off the field with a few followers. These he soon dismissed, and led a wandering life for nearly five months, concealing himself in different parts of the Highlands, and owing his preservation to the fidelity of the poor inhabitants, who could not be tempted to betray him by the great reward which was offered for his apprehension, and who concealed him in their huts and caves, at the risk of their own lives.

At last Charles, with a few faithful friends, found means to get on board a French privateer. Under the shelter of a thick fog he passed through the midst of a British squadron; and at last, after many difficulties and dangers, landed safely at Morlaix, in Bretagne; but so worn out by the fatigues and hardships he had undergone, that he was scarcely to be known as the same handsome, sprightly youth, who had left France full of animation and hope the year before.

Frightful scenes followed in Scotland after the decisive victory at Culloden. It is deeply afflicting that the reputation of a brave man should be sullied by such dreadful cruelties as must ever stain the memory of the duke of Cumberland, who commanded the king's forces. It is said that, in a district of nearly fifty miles round Lochiel, there was, in the course of a few days, neither house nor cottage, neither men nor cattle to be seen; so complete was the ruin, silence, and desolation.

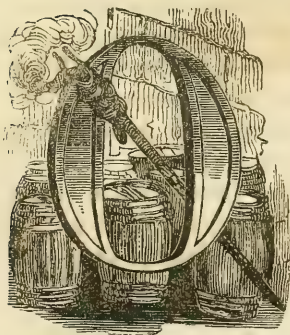
The jails in England were filled with rebels, whose trials now followed. Many were executed—many were transported to the plantations in America, and some few were pardoned. Lords Balmerino, Kilmarnock, Derwentwater, and Lovat, and Mr. Ratcliffe, who were among the principal persons concerned in the rebellion, were conveyed to London and executed.

The rebellion being subdued, the duke of Cumberland returned to the allied army in Flanders, where the war continued a short time longer. At length a general peace was signed at Aix-la-Chapelle, October 7th, 1748.



MONUMENT ERECTED IN MEMORY OF THE PRISONERS WHO DIED IN THE BLACK-HOLE, CALCUTTA.

FALL OF CALCUTTA, AND DEATH OF THE PRISONERS IN THE BLACK-HOLE.



IN the death of the nabob, or, more properly, Subah Allaveady, who had governed with great ability for many years the provinces of Bengal, Behar, and Orissa, the supreme authority devolved, according to his destination, upon his grandson Surajah Dowlah, a weak and tyrannical prince. (A. D. 1756.) Equally timid, suspicious, and cruel, the new viceroy determined to take vengeance on all whom he feared, and to owe his security to the inability of any power within his jurisdiction to hurt him. The



SEPOYS, OR NATIVE TROOPS IN THE BRITISH SERVICE IN INDIA.

English had particularly awakened his apprehensions by the taking of Gheria, a fortress deemed impregnable in Indostan, by their increasing strength in the Carnatic, and by the growth of their settlement at Calcutta.

Other circumstances conspired to point the resentment of Surajah Dowlah immediately against the English factory in Bengal. He was informed, and not altogether without foundation, that the agents of the East India Company had abused their privilege of *dustucks*, by making them subservient not only to the importation of European and the exportation of India goods, but to the importation of commodities from other parts of Indostan, and even of the same province, to the great diminution of the public revenue, and in direct contradiction to the purpose for which they had been granted, the encouragement of foreign commerce. He therefore determined to get those passports recalled by the court of Delhi, or to deny the validity, and also to punish the abuse. And the governor and council of Calcutta, by refusing to deliver up to him a noble refugee, who had taken shelter with all his treasures within their presidency, farther confirmed him in his hostile resolution.

Enraged at this refusal, though seemingly occasioned by misapprehension, the nabob, who had assembled an army of fifty thousand men, with an intention of striking a blow in a distant quarter, ordered it to march directly toward Calcutta, where the English, he was told, were building new fortifications. He himself headed his troops, and advanced with such rapidity that many of them died of fatigue. Sufficient force, however, remained for the accomplishment of his enterprise. After attempting in vain to oppose the enemy in the streets and avenues, the English inhabitants took refuge in Fort William, a place in itself by no means strong, and defended only by a small garrison. Conscious of his inability to hold out, Mr. Drake, the governor, called at two in the morning a council of war, (June 19,) to which all, except the common soldiers, were admitted, and, after debating long whether they should immediately escape to the company's ships in the river, or defer their retreat until the following night, the council broke up, without coming to any positive determination. But, as the first proposal was not carried into execution, the second was generally understood to have been embraced.

Meanwhile the besiegers vigorously pushed their attacks, and hoped every moment to carry the fort by storm. Filled with terror, and utterly unacquainted with military service, many of the company's servants, and even some members of the council, went off to the ships. A party of militia, it was observed, that had conducted the women on board the preceding night, did not return to the garrison. They who remained in it looked at one another with wild affright. The governor, who had hitherto discovered no want of courage, now panic-struck at the thought of falling into the hands of Surajah Dowlah, who had threatened to put him to death, hurried into a boat that lay at the wharf, without apprizing the garrison of his intention. The military commanding officer, and several other persons of distinction, pusillanimously followed his example, and accompanied him to one of the ships.

The astonishment of the garrison at this desertion could only be equalled by their indignation. Nothing was heard for a time but execrations against the fugitives. At length, however, the tumultuous concourse proceeded to deliberation; and Mr. Pearkes, the eldest member of the council left in the fort, having resigned his right of seniority to Mr. Holwell, that gentleman was unanimously invested with the chief command. The number of militia and soldiery now remaining amounted only to one hundred and ninety men. The new commander, therefore, having seen some boats return to the wharf, locked the gate leading to the river, in order to prevent future desertions.

The same promptitude and spirit distinguished Mr. Holwell's whole conduct. But all his gallant efforts were found insufficient to preserve the fort. Soon convinced of their weakness, and, conscious of their danger, the garrison threw out signals for the ships or boats to repair to the wharf. That rational hope of escape, however, failed them. One ship having struck on a sand-bank, not a single vessel of any kind offered afterward to yield them a retreat. As a last resource, Mr. Holwell threw a letter from the ramparts, intimating a desire to capitulate, (June 20;) many of the garrison having been killed since the departure of the governor, and more of the survivors thrown into a state of despondency. Encouraged by this indication of weakness, the besiegers made a desperate but ineffectual assault; after which one of the nabob's officers ap-



SURAJAH DOWLAH AND HIS SONS.

peared with a flag of truce. It was answered by another from the fort. A parley ensued; but before any articles of capitulation could be settled, the troops of Surajah Dowlah forced open one of the gates, and made themselves masters of the place, though without putting any of the garrison to the sword.

About an hour after the taking of Fort William, the nabob entered it, accompanied by his general, Meer Jaffier, and most of the great officers of his army. Having given directions for securing the company's treasure, he seated himself, with all the state of an Asiatic conqueror, in the principal apartment of the factory, and ordered Mr. Holwell to be brought before him. On the first appearance of that gentleman, Surajah Dowlah expressed violent resentment at the presumption of the English, in daring to resist his power, and chagrin at the smallness of the sum found in the treasury. Softened, however, in the course of three conferences, he dismissed the English chief, as he thought proper to call him, with repeated assurances, on the word of a soldier, that he should suffer no harm.

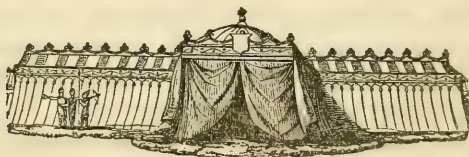
Notwithstanding those assurances, Mr. Holwell and his unfortunate companions (whom he found on his return surrounded by a strong guard) were forced into the common dungeon of the fort, usually called *the black-hole*, about eight o'clock in the evening; and in that dungeon, only eighteen feet square, were they condemned to pass the night in one of the hottest climates of the earth, and in the hottest season of that climate. They could receive no air but through two small grated windows, almost totally blocked up by a neighbouring building, which deprived them of the common benefit even of the sultry atmosphere. Their distress was inexpressible, in consequence of the heat and the pressure of their bodies, as soon as the door was shut. They attempted to force it open, but without effect. Rage succeeded disappointment. The keenest invectives were uttered, in order to provoke the guard to put an end to their wretched lives, by firing into the dungeon; and, while some, in the agonies and torment of despair, were blaspheming their Creator with frantic execrations, others were imploring relief from heaven in wild and incoherent prayers.

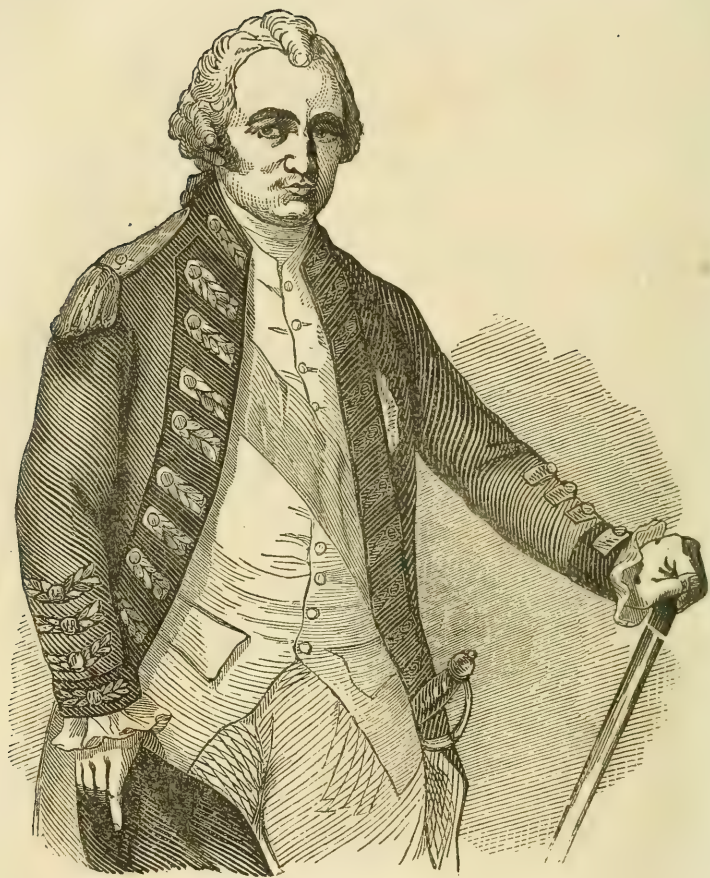
Mr. Holwell, who had taken his station at one of the windows, exhorted his fellow-sufferers to composure as the only means of surviving till morning. In the mean time, he ad

dressed himself to an old jemautdar, an officer of the guard, who seemed to have some marks of humanity in his countenance, promising him a thousand rupees if he would separate them into different apartments. He retired to procure an order for that purpose, but returned in a few minutes, with a sorrowful face, and said it was *impossible*! Misapprehending his meaning, Mr. Holwell proffered him a larger sum. He retired a second time, and again returned with the same woe-foreboding look, while the prisoners rent the air with their cries to the guard to open the dungeon, and drank their own sweat to relieve their thirst.

“Unhappy men!” said the jemautdar, “submit to necessity. The subah is asleep! and what slave dares disturb his repose?” A stronger picture of despotism was never drawn, nor a deeper scene of human misery exhibited.

All sentiments of friendship, compassion, or respect, were henceforth extinguished in the breasts of the devoted prisoners. No one would give way for the relief of another; but every one employed his utmost strength to obtain a place near the windows, or to maintain that station. The feeble sunk never more to rise, and were trampled upon by their stronger companions. The havoc of death and the struggle for air continued until morning appeared; when, the door being opened, of one hundred and forty-six persons thrust into the black-hole, twenty-three only were brought out alive. And Mr. Holwell, and two other of the survivors, were condemned to farther sufferings. They were sent prisoners to Muxadavad, the capital of the province, in hopes of extorting from them, by cruel usage, a confession of the factory’s hidden treasures. Calcutta was pillaged, and Fort William secured by a garrison of three thousand men. The affairs of the English East India Company seemed finally ruined in Bengal.





COLONEL CLIVE.

RECOVERY OF CALCUTTA—BRILLIANT SUCCESS OF COLONEL CLIVE IN INDIA.



WHEN Admiral Watson returned to the coast of Coromandel, after reducing the fortress of Gheria, the residence of the famous pirate Angria, he was informed of the loss of Calcutta, with all the horrid circumstances attending it, and resolved upon revenge. He accordingly took on board Mr. Clive, now advanced to the rank of colonel, with part of the English East India Company's troops at Madras, and sailed for the bay of Bengal. By a zealous co-operation of the sea and land forces, the forts of Buzbuzia and Tannah were speedily reduced. The town of Calcutta was recovered, and the English colours being once more hoisted on Fort William, Mr. Drake, and the members of the council, who had hitherto remained on board the ships in the river, were again put in possession of the government.

Not satisfied with this success, the British commanders made themselves masters also of the large town of Hoogly, where the nabob had established his principal magazines. Enraged at so many losses, and dreading more, Surajah Dowlah assembled a great army and marched toward Calcutta, determined severely to chastise the audacity of the invaders, and even finally to expel every Englishman from the province of Bengal. But he met with so warm a salute from Colonel Clive, Captain Coote, and other gallant officers, at the head of the company's troops, reinforced with six hundred sailors from the fleet, as induced him to sue for peace, and agree to such terms as the English commanders thought proper to dictate. He engaged to restore to the East India Company all their factories, goods, and money, which had been seized by his orders; to reinstate

them in all their former privileges; and to allow them to extend their presidency over thirty-eight neighbouring villages, conformable to a disputed grant that had been obtained from the great mogul.

Informed of the new war between France and Great Britain, and having nothing now to fear from the nabob, the English commanders resolved to turn their arms against the French factories in Bengal. Their first object was the reduction of Chandernagore, the principal French settlement in the province, and a place of great strength, situated a little higher on the river Hoogly than Calcutta. In the expedition against this town and fort, Colonel Clive commanded seven hundred European troops, and sixteen hundred sepoys, or soldiers of the country, habituated to the use of fire-arms. The squadron, consisting of three sail of the line and a sloop of war, was conducted by the admirals Watson and Pocock. The place was defended by six hundred Europeans and three hundred sepoys, who gallantly disputed every post. But so powerful was the cannonade from the ships, as soon as they could bring their guns to bear upon the works, and from two batteries, mounted with twenty-four pounders, that assailed with a cross-fire the two bastions of the fort against which the men-of-war laid their broadsides, that the garrison was obliged to surrender, after a short but vigorous conflict of three hours.

As conquest naturally expands the views of the conqueror, Clive, who was formed for vast undertakings, no sooner found himself in possession of Chandernagore, than he conceived the design of humbling still farther the nabob of Bengal, and of advancing to a yet greater height the interests of the English East India Company. And the conduct of that prince furnished him with many pretexts for renewing hostilities.

Surajah Dowlah was backward in fulfilling the treaty he had lately concluded with the company. He attempted to evade the execution of the chief articles of it; and he had entered into secret intrigues with the French, to whom he seemed disposed to afford protection in return for support. The English colonel, therefore, resolved to compel him to perform his stipulations, and, in case of refusal, to chastise him for his breach of faith, and even to divest him of his authority. In the last

resolution he was confirmed (if it was not suggested) by a discovery of the dissatisfaction of Meer Jaffier, commander-in-chief of the nabob's forces, and of the intrigues of Surajah Dowlah with the French officers in the Deccan.

The measures employed by Clive to accomplish this revolution do no less honour to his sagacity and address as a politician than to his vigour and skill as a commander. While he conducted an intricate and dangerous negotiation with Meer Jaffier by means of his agents, he counterfeited friendship so artfully as not only to quiet the suspicions of the nabob, but to induce him to dissolve his army, which had been assembled at Plassy, a strong camp to the south of his capital, before the taking of Chandernagore, in consequence of a report that the English commander meant next to attack Muxadavad. "Why do you keep your forces in the field," said he, insidiously, "after so many marks of friendship and confidence? They distress all the merchants, and prevent us from renewing our trade. The English cannot stay in Bengal without freedom of commerce. Do not reduce us to the necessity of suspecting that you intend to destroy us as soon as you have an opportunity."

In order to quiet these pretended fears, Surajah Dowlah recalled his army, though not without great anxiety. "If," cried he, with keen emotion, "the colonel should deceive me!" And the secret departure of the English agents from Muxadavad soon convinced him that he was deceived. He again assembled his army and ordered it to re-occupy its former camp at Plassy, after having made Meer Jaffier, by the most solemn oaths upon the Koran, renew his obligations of fidelity and allegiance.

The English commander, who had hoped to take possession of that important post, was not a little disconcerted by this movement. The nabob had reached Plassy, twelve hours before him, at the head of fifty thousand foot and eighteen thousand horse. These forces were protected by fifty pieces of cannon, planted in the openings between the columns into which the Indian army was divided, and partly directed by forty Frenchmen. Clive, however, though surprised at the enemy's numbers, as well as at their formidable array, resolved to give them battle. He accordingly drew up his little army, consisting of about one thousand Europeans and two thousand sepoy, under

cover of eight field-pieces. The cannonade was brisk on both sides, from eight o'clock in the morning till near noon, when a heavy shower damaged the enemy's powder, and their fire began gradually to flag.

Nor was this the only circumstance in favour of the English army. Surajah Dowlah, who had hitherto remained in his tent beyond the reach of danger, and been flattered every moment with assurances of victory, was now informed that Meer Murdeen, the only general on whose fidelity he could rely, was mortally wounded. Overwhelmed by so weighty a misfortune, he sent for Meer Jaffier, and throwing his turban on the ground, "Jaffier!" exclaimed he, "that turban you must defend." The traitor bowed, and, with his hand on his breast, promised his best services. But no sooner did he join his troops, than he sent a letter to Colonel Clive, acquainting him with what had passed, and requesting him either instantly to push on to victory, or to storm the nabob's camp during the following night.

The letter, however, was not delivered till the fortune of the day was decided; so that Clive was still held in some degree of suspense with respect to the ultimate intentions of Jaffier. Meanwhile the nabob, understanding that his general continued inactive, suddenly ordered a retreat. Mounting a camel soon after, he fled toward Muxadavad, accompanied by two thousand horsemen. And the English army, having surmounted every difficulty, entered his camp about five in the afternoon, without any other obstruction than what was occasioned by baggage and stores—it being utterly abandoned by his troops, who were seen flying on all sides in the utmost confusion.

Having at length received Meer Jaffier's letter, Clive pressed on with his victorious army to Daudpore, regardless of the rich plunder of the enemy's camp. He arrived there about eight o'clock in the evening, and the next morning saluted the traitor, nabob (though more properly Subah) of Bengal, Baher, and Orixá.

The new nabob hastened with his troops to Muxadavad, whither he was followed by the English commander. From that city, Surajah Dowlah had made his escape in disguise, the day after his defeat, accompanied only by his favourite woman, and by the eunuch who governed his seraglio, having lost all confidence in his army and in his officers, both civil and mili-


tary. He was taken, brought back to his capital, imprisoned, and put to death by order of Meerum, the son of Jaffier, an ambitious and cruel youth, who was unwilling to leave any thing in the power of fortune that violence could secure. Nor can his conduct be blamed on the maxims of Asiatic policy. His father's sway, which otherwise might have been disputed, was instantly acknowledged over all the three provinces that compose the viceroyalty of subahship.

It now only remained for Colonel Clive to make Meer Jaffier, whom he had seated in the *musnud* or throne, fulfil the conditional engagements into which he had solemnly entered before the English army was put in motion for his support. After attempting some evasions, by pleading the lowness of his predecessor's treasury, the nabob found it necessary to adhere to every stipulation. And a treaty to the following purport was read, and acknowledged to have been signed by him.

"I engage that, as soon as I shall be established in the government of Bengal, Behar, and Orixa, I will maintain the treaty of peace concluded with the English by Surajah Dowlah; that the enemies of the English shall be my enemies, whether they be Indians or Europeans; that all the effects and factories belonging to the French in Bengal, the paradise of nations, or in Behar and Orixa, shall remain in the possession of the English, and I will never more allow them to settle in any of the three provinces; that, in consideration of the losses which the English company have sustained by the capture and plunder of Calcutta by the nabob, and the charges occasioned by maintaining forces to recover their factories, I will give one *crore* of rupees," equivalent to twelve hundred and fifty thousand pounds sterling; "and that, for the effects plundered from the English inhabitants of Calcutta, I will give fifty *lacks* of rupees," equivalent to six hundred and twenty-five thousand pounds sterling. He also agreed to indemnify the Armenian, Gentoo, and other Asiatic inhabitants of Calcutta, and greatly to enlarge the territory of the English East India Company. In a word, the indemnification and restitutions, with a donation of fifty lacks of rupees to the fleet and army, exclusive of private gratuities, amounted to the enormous sum of two millions seven hundred and fifty thousand pounds sterling. Near one-third of that sum was immediately paid in coined silver.



CONQUEST OF CANADA BY THE BRITISH.



THE war which broke out in 1755 opened in a manner most unfavourable to the British arms. General Braddock, who marched from New York against Canada, having neglected the precautions necessary in such a country, was completely surprised by a combined force of French and Indians. He himself being killed, only part of the army was saved by the skill and intrepidity of Colonel (afterwards General) Washington, who on that occasion distinguished himself for the first time. His troops, being afterwards joined to the provincial force under Generals Shirley and Johnson, repulsed near Lake George an attack made by a large body of the enemy under Baron Dieskau. Dieskau was mortally wounded in the action, and was found by some soldiers leaning against a tree when the action was over. Johnson, having ac-



DEATH OF BARON DIESKAU.

quitted himself with great ability, and received several wounds, was rewarded with the honour of knighthood, and was long much esteemed in American warfare. But in the two following years, the enemy, headed by the gallant marquis de Montcalm, obtained a series of successes, terminating in the reduction of the important forts called Oswego and William Henry. This last triumph was stained with the barbarous murder, by the Indians, of fifteen hundred English prisoners; which Montcalm, though it would seem unjustly, was accused of sanctioning. These disasters, joined to the failure of Byng at Minorca, and other abortive expeditions, deeply depressed the spirit of the nation, and seemed to sink their reputation in arms lower than at any former period. Yet the courage of the British lion was soon afterwards roused: the public voice called to the helm of affairs William Pitt, the greatest statesman then living, and who was destined to raise her name to a pitch of glory before unrivalled.

It was one of the main objects of Pitt's policy to obtain possession of the French territories in America, and to form them, together with the British colonies, into one vast range of dominion. He chose as his chief instrument Wolfe, a young man



WILLIAM PITT, EARL OF CHATHAM.

without family or parliamentary interest, or even any established character as a commander. He had served only in subordinate situations; yet the minister, with intuitive sagacity, saw in him the man best fitted to lead British troops to victory. In the expedition against Louisburg, in 1758, the most active though not the highest post was assigned to him, and through his exertions chiefly that main bulwark of French America fell. After the great name thus earned, there could no longer be any objection to investing him with the chief command.

In 1759, preparations were made on a great scale for the conquest of Canada; comprising twenty sail of the line, with smaller vessels and transports, having on board eight thousand veteran troops. These were placed under the direction of Wolfe, who was allowed the choice of all his officers. After a prosperous voyage, the armament on the 26th June, arrived off the Isle of Orleans. Quebec was defended by the marquis de Montcalm, having under his command thirteen thousand men, of whom





WOLFE ASCENDING THE HEIGHTS OF ABRAHAM.



QUEBEC.

indeed only two thousand were regular troops, the rest being Canadian militia with a few Indians. The attack having been long foreseen, full time was given him to intrench and strengthen his position. An attempt was first made to destroy the British fleet by fire-ships; but these were caught with grappling irons, towed aside, and allowed to burn out without doing any injury. Brigadier-general Monckton then occupied Point Levi, opposite to the capital, which was thence bombarded with vigour; but, though a number of houses were destroyed, the defences remained almost uninjured. The place therefore could only be carried by storming the intrenchments which the French had thrown up in front of it. This bold measure Wolfe resolved to adopt, and on the 31st July he effected a landing. The boats, however, had met with an accidental delay; the grenadiers, it is said, rushed forward with too blind and impetuous a valour; Montcalm, strongly posted between Quebec and Montmorenci, poured in upon them a destructive fire; the Indian rifle told with fatal effect; and the assailants were finally repulsed, with the loss of one hundred and eighty-two killed and six hundred and fifty wounded.

Wolfe felt this disappointment so deeply that his delicate frame was thrown into a violent fever; and in a despatch to Mr. Pitt he afterwards expressed the apprehensions under which he laboured. The fleet, his strongest arm, could not act against the wall of rock on which Quebec is seated; and with his weakened force he had to storm fortified positions defended by troops more numerous than his own. As soon, however, as his health permitted, he called a council of war, desired the general officers to consult together; and, it is said, proposed to them a second attack on the French lines, avoiding the errors which had led to the failure of the first. They were decidedly of opinion that this was inexpedient; but on the suggestion, as it is now believed, of Brigadier-general Townsend, the second in command, they proposed to attempt a point on the other side of Quebec, where the enemy were yet unprepared, and whence they might gain the heights of Abraham which overlooked the city. Wolfe assented, and applied all his powers to the accomplishment of this plan. Such active demonstrations were made against Montcalm's original position that he believed it still the main object; and though he observed detachments moving up the river, merely sent De Bougainville with 2000 men to Cape Rouge, a position too distant, being nine miles above Quebec. On the night of the 12th of September, in deep silence, the troops were embarked and conveyed in two divisions to the place now named Wolfe's Cove. The precipice here was so steep, that even the general for a moment doubted the possibility of scaling it; but Fraser's Highlanders, grasping the bushes which grew on its face, soon reached the summit, and in a short time he had his whole army drawn up in regular order on the plains above. Montcalm, struck by this unexpected intelligence, at once concluded that, unless the English could be driven from this position, Quebec was lost; and, hoping probably that only a detachment had yet reached it, pushed forward at once to the attack. About fifteen hundred light infantry and Indians arrived first, and began a desultory fire from among the bushes; but the British reserved their shot for the main body, which was seen advancing behind. They came forward in good order, and commenced a brisk attack; yet no general fire was opened in return till they were within forty yards, when it could be followed up by the bayonet. The first volley was decisive; Wolfe and Montcalm both fell



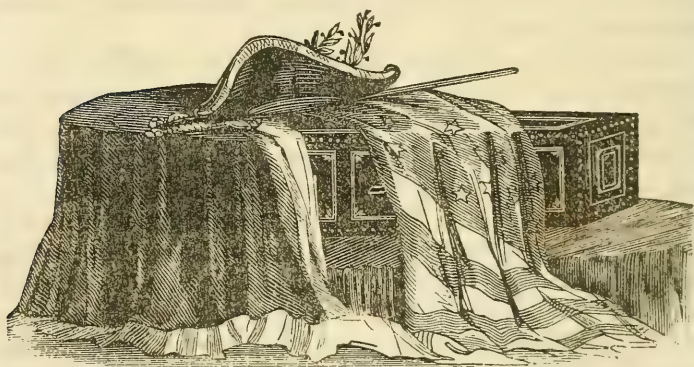
DEATH OF GENERAL WOLFE.

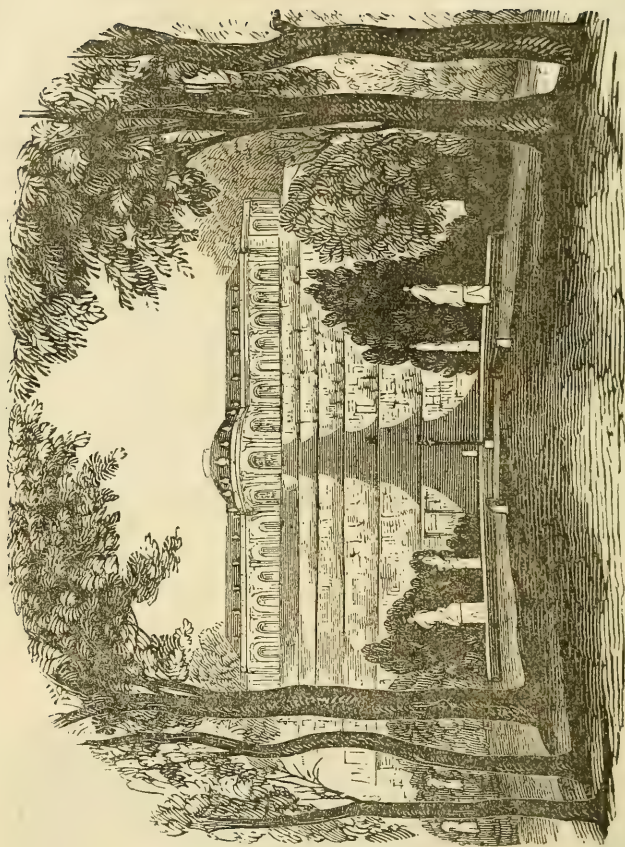
almost at the same moment ; the French instantly gave way in every quarter ; and repeated charges, in which the Highland broadsword was powerfully wielded, soon completed the victory. As soon as Wolfe received his mortal wound, he said, "Support me ! let not my brave soldiers see me drop." He was carried to some distance in the rear,—and hearing the cry "They run !" he asked "Who run ?" Being told "The enemy," he gave some short directions, and then said : "Now, God be praised, I die happy !" We cannot forbear quoting the simple and feeling observations of General Townsend respecting his heroic friend, whose fate threw so affecting a lustre on this memorable victory : "I am not ashamed to own to you, that my heart does not exult in the midst of this success. I have lost but a friend in General Wolfe ; our country has lost a sure support and a perpetual honour. If the world were sensible at how dear a price we have purchased Quebec in his death, it would damp the public joy. Our best consolation is, that Providence seemed not to promise that he should remain long among us. He was himself sensible of the weakness of his constitution, and determined to crowd into a few years actions that would have adorned length of life."

The battle had scarcely closed when De Bougainville appeared in the rear, but, on seeing the fortune of the day, immediately retreated. On the 17th a flag of truce came out, and on the 18th a capitulation was concluded on honourable terms to the French, who were not made prisoners, but conveyed home to their native country.

Canada was not yet conquered. General Amherst, indeed, marching from New York with a large force, had reduced the strong posts of Ticonderoga and Crown Point ; while General Prideaux, aided by Sir William Johnson with a body of Indians, had taken Niagara. But the winter arrested their farther advance ; and General De Levi, who had assembled at Montreal upwards of 10,000 men, conceived the design of recapturing Quebec in the spring, before it could obtain succours, either by sea or land. Being baffled in his projects to carry it by a *coup de main*, he landed his army on the 27th April, 1760, advanced to the heights of Abraham, and prepared to carry on a regular siege. General Murray had been left with a garrison of 6000 men ; but a severe attack of scurvy had reduced to half that number those who were capable of bearing arms. This officer,

fearing that the place was unfit to stand a siege, and hoping much from the bravery of his troops, attacked the enemy on the 28th April, at Sillery; but, being overpowered by superior numbers, he was defeated with great loss. If guilty here of any rashness, he atoned for it by the activity with which he placed Quebec in a state of defence, and held out the town till the 15th May, when a fleet, under Admiral Swanton, arrived and raised the siege. The French army then concentrated itself in Montreal, where the marquis De Vaudreuil made an attempt to maintain his ground; but being enclosed by the forces under General Amherst, and by those from Quebec and Niagara, he found himself obliged, on the 8th September, 1760, to sign a capitulation, by which that city and the whole of Canada were transferred to British dominion. He obtained liberal stipulations for the good treatment of the inhabitants, and particularly the free exercise of the Catholic faith, and the preservation of the property belonging to the religious communities. He even demanded that the bishop should continue to be appointed by the French monarch, but this was of course refused. The possession of Canada, as well as of all the adjoining countries, was confirmed to Britain by the peace of Paris, signed on the 10th February, 1763.





SANS SOUCI, THE PALACE OF FREDERICK THE GREAT.



FREDERICK THE GREAT.

THE FIRST SILESIAN WAR.



THE conduct of Frederick the Great in his attack upon Silesia is universally reprobated by historians. Being left by his father, at his decease, in possession of a well-disciplined army, he trumped up some obsolete claims of the house of Brandenburg as a pretext for what was, in fact, an unprincipled robbery. His prosecution of the war is thus characterized by Macaulay:—

Without any declaration of war, without any demand for reparation, in the very act of pouring forth compliments and assurances of good-will, Frederick commenced hostilities. Many thousands of his troops were actually in Silesia before the queen of Hungary knew that he had set up any claim to any part of her territories. At length he sent

her a message which could be regarded only as an insult. If she would but let him have Silesia, he would, he said, stand by her against any power which should try to deprive her of her other dominions ; as if he was not already bound to stand by her, or as if his new promise could be of more value than the old one !

It was the depth of winter. The cold was severe, and the roads deep in mire. But the Prussians passed on. Resistance was impossible. The Austrian army was then neither numerous nor efficient. The small portion of that army which lay in Silesia was unprepared for hostilities. Glogau was blockaded ; Breslau opened its gates ; Ohlau was evacuated. A few scattered garrisons still held out ; but the whole open country was subjugated ; no enemy ventured to encounter the king in the field ; and, before the end of January, 1741, he returned to receive the congratulations of his subjects at Berlin.

Silesia had been occupied without a battle ; but the Austrian troops were advancing to the relief of the fortresses which still held out. In the spring Frederick rejoined his army. He had seen little of war, and had never commanded any great body of men in the field. It is not, therefore, strange that his first military operations showed little of that skill which, at a later period, was the admiration of Europe. What connoisseurs say of some pictures painted by Raphael in his youth, may be said of this campaign. It was in Frederick's early bad manner. Fortunately for him, the generals to whom he was opposed were men of small capacity. The discipline of his own troops, particularly of the infantry, was unequalled in that age ; and some able and experienced officers were at hand to assist him with their advice. Of these, the most distinguished was Field-marshal Schwerin—a brave adventurer of Pomeranian extraction, who had served half the governments in Europe, had borne the commissions of the States-General of Holland and of the duke of Mecklenburg, and fought under Marlborough at Blenheim, and had been with Charles XII. at Bender.

Frederick's first battle was fought at Molwitz ; and never did the career of a great commander open in a more inauspicious manner. His army was victorious. Not only, however, did he not establish his title to the character of an able general, but he was so unfortunate as to make it doubtful whether he pos-



MARIA THERESA PRESENTING HER SON TO THE MAGNATES OF HUNGARY.

sessed the vulgar courage of a soldier. The cavalry, which he commanded in person, was put to flight. Unaccustomed to the tumult and carnage of a field of battle, he lost his self-possession, and listened too readily to those who urged him to save himself. His English gray carried him many miles from the field, while Schwerin, though wounded in two places, manfully upheld the day. The skill of the old field-marshal and the steadiness of the Prussian battalions prevailed; and the Austrian army was driven from the field with the loss of eight thousand men.

The news was carried late at night to a mill in which the king had taken shelter. It gave him a bitter pang. He was successful; but he owed his success to dispositions which others had made, and to the valour of men who had fought while he was flying. So unpromising was the first appearance of the greatest warrior of that age!

The battle of Molwitz was the signal for a general explosion throughout Europe. Bavaria took up arms. France, not yet declaring herself a principal in the war, took part in it as an ally of Bavaria. The two great statesmen to whom mankind had owed many years of tranquillity, disappeared about this time from the scene; but not till they had both been guilty of the weakness of sacrificing their sense of justice and their love of peace in the vain hope of preserving their power. Fleury, sinking under age and infirmity, was borne down by the impetuosity of Belle-Isle. Walpole retired from the service of his ungrateful country to his woods and paintings at Houghton; and his power devolved on the daring and eccentric Carteret. As were the ministers, so were the nations. Thirty years during which Europe had, with few interruptions, enjoyed repose, had prepared the public mind for great military efforts. A new generation had grown up, which could not remember the siege of Turin or the slaughter of Malplaquet; which knew war by nothing but its trophies; and which, while it looked with pride on the tapestries at Blenheim, or the statue in the "Place of Victories," little thought by what privations, by what waste of private fortunes, by how many bitter tears, conquests must be purchased.

For a time fortune seemed adverse to the queen of Hungary. Frederick invaded Moravia. The French and Bavarians penetrated into Bohemia, and were there joined by the Saxons.

Prague was taken. The elector of Bavaria was raised by the suffrages of his colleagues to the Imperial throne—a throne which the practice of centuries had almost entitled the House of Austria to regard as an hereditary possession.

Yet was the spirit of the haughty daughter of the Cæsars unbroken. Hungary was still hers by an unquestionable title; and although her ancestors had found Hungary the most mutinous of all their kingdoms, she resolved to trust herself to the fidelity of a people, rude indeed, turbulent, and impatient of oppression, but brave, generous, and simple-hearted. In the midst of distress and peril she had given birth to a son, afterwards the Emperor Joseph II. Scarcely had she risen from her couch, when she hastened to Presburg. There, in the sight of an innumerable multitude, she was crowned with the crown, and robed with the robe of St. Stephen. No spectator could refrain his tears when the beautiful young mother, still weak from child-bearing, rode, after the fashion of her fathers, up the Mount of Defiance, unsheathed the ancient sword of state, shook it towards north and south, east and west, and, with a glow on her pale face, challenged the four corners of the world to dispute her rights and those of her boy. At the first sitting of the diet she appeared clad in deep mourning for her father, and in pathetic and dignified words implored her people to support her just cause. Magnates and deputies sprang up, half drew their sabres, and with eager voices vowed to stand by her with their lives and fortunes. Till then, her firmness had never once forsaken her before the public eye, but at that shout she sank down upon her throne, and wept aloud. Still more touching was the sight when, a few days later, she came before the estates of her realm, and held up before them the little archduke in her arms.

Then it was that the enthusiasm of Hungary broke forth into that war-cry which soon resounded throughout Europe, "Let us die for our king, Maria Theresa!"

In the mean time, Frederick was meditating a change of policy. He had no wish to raise France to supreme power on the continent, at the expense of the house of Hapsburg. His first object was, to rob the queen of Hungary. His second was, that, if possible, nobody should rob her but himself. He had entered into engagements with the powers leagued against Austria; but these engagements were in his estimation of no

more force than the guarantee formerly given to the "Pragmatic Sanction." His game now was to secure his share of the plunder by betraying his accomplices. Maria Theresa was little inclined to listen to any such compromise; but the English government represented to her so strongly the necessity of buying off so formidable an enemy as Frederick, that she agreed to negotiate. The negotiation would not, however, have ended in a treaty, had not the arms of Frederick been crowned with a second victory; Prince Charles of Lorraine, brother-in-law to Maria Theresa, a bold and active, though unfortunate general, gave battle to the Prussians at Chotusitz, and was defeated. The king was still only a learner of the military art. He acknowledged, at a later period, that his success on this occasion was to be attributed, not at all to his own generalship, but solely to the valour and steadiness of his troops. He completely effaced, however, by his courage and energy, the stain which Molwitz had left on his reputation.

A peace, concluded under the English mediation, was the fruit of this battle. Maria Theresa ceded Silesia; Frederick abandoned his allies; Saxony followed his example; and the queen was left at liberty to turn her whole force against France and Bavaria. She was everywhere triumphant. The French were compelled to evacuate Bohemia, and with difficulty effected their escape. The whole line of their retreat might be tracked by the corpses of thousands who had died of cold, fatigue, and hunger. Many of those who reached their country carried with them the seeds of death. Bavaria was overrun by bands of ferocious warriors from that bloody "debatable land," which lies on the frontier between Christendom and Islam. The terrible names of the Pandoor, the Croat, and the Hussar then first became familiar to western Europe. The unfortunate Charles of Bavaria, vanquished by Austria, betrayed by Prussia, driven from his hereditary states, and neglected by his allies, was hurried by shame and remorse to an untimely end. An English army appeared in the heart of Germany, and defeated the French at Dettingen. The Austrian captains already began to talk of completing the work of Marlborough and Eugene, and of compelling France to relinquish Alsace and the three bishoprics.

The court of Versailles, in this peril, looked to Frederick for

help. He had been guilty of two great treasons, perhaps he might be induced to commit a third. The duchess of Chateauroux then held the chief influence over the feeble Louis. She determined to send an agent to Berlin, and Voltaire was selected for the mission. He eagerly undertook the task; for, while his literary fame filled all Europe, he was troubled with a childish craving for political distinction. He was vain, and not without reason, of his address, and of his insinuating eloquence; and he flattered himself that he possessed boundless influence over the king of Prussia. The truth was, that he knew, as yet, only one corner of Frederick's character. He was well acquainted with all the petty vanities and affectations of the poetaster; but was not aware that these foibles were united with all the talents and vices which lead to success in active life; and that the unlucky versifier who bored him with reams of middling Alexandrians, was the most vigilant, suspicious, and severe of politicians.

Voltaire was received at the palace of Sans Souci with every mark of respect and friendship, was lodged in the palace, and had a seat daily at the royal table. The negotiation was of an extraordinary description. Nothing can be conceived more whimsical than the conferences which took place between the first literary man and the first practical man of the age, whom a strange weakness had induced to exchange their parts. The great poet would talk of nothing but treaties and guarantees, and the great king of nothing but metaphors and rhymes. On one occasion Voltaire put into his majesty's hand a paper on the state of Europe, and received it back with verses scrawled on the margin. In secret they both laughed at each other. Voltaire did not spare the king's poems; and the king has left on record his opinion of Voltaire's diplomacy. "He had no credentials," says Frederick, "and the whole mission was a joke, a mere farce."



FREDERICK THE GREAT AND VOLTAIRE AT SANS SOUCL.

THE SEVEN YEARS' WAR IN GERMANY.



It was in the month of August, 1756, that the great war of the Seven Years commenced. The king demanded of the empress-queen a distinct explanation of her intentions, and plainly told her that he should consider a refusal as a declaration of war. "I want," he said, "no answer in the style of an oracle." He received an answer at once haughty and evasive. In an instant, the rich electorate of Saxony was overflowed by sixty thousand Prussian troops. Augustus, with his army, occupied a strong position at Pirna. The queen of Poland was at Dresden. In a few days Pirna was blockaded and Dresden was taken. The object of Frederick was to obtain possession of the Saxon state papers; for those papers, he well knew, contained ample proofs that though apparently an aggressor, he was really acting in self-defence. The queen of Poland, as well acquainted as Frederick with the importance of those documents, had packed them up, had concealed them in her bed-chamber, and was about to send them off to Warsaw, when a Prussian officer made his appearance. In the hope that no soldier would venture to outrage a lady, a queen, a daughter of an emperor, the mother-in-law of a dauphin, she placed herself before the trunk, and at length sat down on it. But all resistance was vain. The papers were carried to Frederick, who found in them, as he expected, abundant evidence of the designs of the coalition. The most important documents were instantly published, and the effect of the publication was great. It was clear that, of whatever sins the king of Prussia might formerly have been guilty, he was now the injured party, and had merely anticipated a blow intended to destroy him.

The Saxon camp at Pirna was in the mean time closely invested; but the besieged were not without hopes of succour. A

great Austrian army, under Marshal Brown, was about to pour through the passes which separate Bohemia from Saxony. Frederick left at Pirna a force sufficient to deal with the Saxons, hastened into Bohemia, encountered Brown at Lowositz, and defeated him. This battle decided the fate of Saxony. Augustus and his favourite, Buhl, fled to Poland. The whole army of the electorate capitulated. From that time till the end of the war, Frederick treated Saxony as a part of his dominions, or, rather, he acted towards the Saxons in a manner which may serve to illustrate the whole meaning of that tremendous sentence—*subjectos tanquam suos, viles tanquam alienos*. Saxony was as much in his power as Brandenburg; and he had no such interest in the welfare of Saxony as he had in the welfare of Brandenburg. He accordingly levied troops and exacted contributions throughout the enslaved province, with far more rigour than in any part of his own dominions. Seventeen thousand men, who had been in the camp of Pirna, were half compelled, half persuaded, to enlist under their conqueror. Thus, within a few weeks from the commencement of hostilities, one of the confederates had been disarmed, and his weapons pointed against the rest.

The winter put a stop to military operations. All had hitherto gone well. But the real tug of war was still to come. It was easy to foresee that the year 1757 would be a memorable era in the history of Europe.

The scheme for the campaign was simple, bold, and judicious. The duke of Cumberland, with an English Hanoverian army, was in Western Germany, and might be able to prevent the French troops from attacking Prussia. The Russians, confined by their snows, would probably not stir till the spring was far advanced. Saxony was prostrated. Sweden could do nothing very important. During a few months, Frederick would have to deal with Austria alone. Even thus the odds were against him. But ability and courage have often triumphed against odds still more formidable.

Early in 1757, the Prussian army in Saxony began to move. Through four defiles in the mountains they came pouring into Bohemia. Prague was his first mark; but the ulterior object was probably Vienna. At Prague, lay Marshal Brown with one great army. Daun, the most cautious and fortunate of the

Austrian captains, was advancing with another. Frederick determined to overwhelm Brown before Daun should arrive. On the sixth of May was fought, under those walls which, a hundred and thirty years before, had witnessed the victory of the Catholic league and the flight of the unhappy Palatine, a battle more bloody than any which Europe saw during the long interval between Malplaquet and Eylau. The king and Prince Ferdinand of Brunswick were distinguished on that day by their valour and exertions. But the chief glory was with Schwerin. When the Prussian infantry wavered, the stout old marshal snatched the colours from an ensign, and, waving them in the air, led back his regiment to the charge. Thus, at seventy-two years of age, he fell in the thickest battle, still grasping the standard which bears the black eagle on the field argent. The victory remained with the king; but it had been dearly purchased. Whole columns of his bravest warriors had fallen. He admitted that he had lost eighteen thousand men. Of the enemy, twenty-four thousand had been killed, wounded, or taken.

Part of the defeated army was shut up in Prague. Part fled to join the troops which, under the command of Daun, were now close at hand. Frederick determined to play over the same game which had succeeded at Lowositz. He left a large force to besiege Prague, and at the head of thirty thousand men he marched against Daun. The cautious marshal, though he had a great superiority in numbers, would risk nothing. He occupied at Kolin a position almost impregnable, and awaited the attack of the king.

It was the 18th of June—a day which, if the Greek superstition still retained its influence, would be held sacred to Nemesis—a day on which the two greatest princes and soldiers of modern times were taught, by a terrible experience, that neither skill nor valour can fix the inconstancy of fortune. The battle began before noon; and part of the Prussian army maintained the contest till after the midsummer sun had gone down. But at length the king found that his troops, having been repeatedly driven back with frightful carnage, could no longer be led to the charge. He was with difficulty persuaded to quit the field. The officers of his personal staff were under the necessity of expostulating with him, and one of them took the liberty to

say, "Does your majesty mean to storm the batteries alone?" Thirteen thousand of his bravest followers had perished. Nothing remained for him but to retreat in good order, to raise the siege of Prague, and to hurry his army by different routes out of Bohemia.

This stroke seemed to be final. Frederick's situation had at best been such, that only an uninterrupted run of good-luck could save him, as it seemed, from ruin. And now, almost in the outset of the contest, he had met with a check which, even in a war between equal powers, would have been felt as serious. He had owed much to the opinion which all Europe entertained of his army. Since his accession, his soldiers had in many successive battles been victorious over the Austrians. But the glory had departed from his arms. All whom his malevolent sarcasms had wounded, made haste to avenge themselves by scoffing at the scoffer. His soldiers had ceased to confide in his star. In every part of his camp his dispositions were severely criticised. Even in his own family he had detractors. His next brother, William, heir-presumptive, or rather, in truth, heir-apparent to the throne, and great-grandfather of the present king, could not refrain from lamenting his own fate and that of the house of Hohenzollern, once so great and so prosperous, but now, by the rash ambition of its chief, made a by-word to all nations. These complaints, and some blunders which William committed during the retreat from Bohemia, called forth the bitter displeasure of the inexorable king. The prince's heart was broken by the cutting reproaches of his brother; he quitted the army, retired to a country seat, and in a short time died of shame and vexation.

It seemed that the king's distress could hardly be increased. Yet at this moment another blow not less terrible than that of Kolin fell upon him. The French, under Marshal D'Estrées, had invaded Germany. The duke of Cumberland had given them battle at Hastenbeck, and had been defeated. In order to save the electorate of Hanover from entire subjugation, he had made at Closter Severn an arrangement with the French generals, which left them at liberty to turn their arms against the Prussian dominions.

That nothing might be wanting to Frederick's distress, he lost his mother just at this time; and he appears to have felt the

loss more than was to be expected from the hardness and severity of his character. In truth, his misfortunes had now cut to the quick. The mocker, the tyrant, the most rigorous, the most imperious, the most cynical of men, was very unhappy. His face was so haggard, and his form so thin, that when, on his return from Bohemia, he passed through Leipsic, the people hardly knew him again. His sleep was broken; the tears, in spite of himself, often started into his eyes; and the grave began to present itself to his agitated mind as the best refuge from misery and dishonour. His resolution was fixed never to be taken alive, and never to make peace on condition of descending from his place among the powers of Europe. He saw nothing left for him except to die; and he deliberately chose his mode of death. He always carried about with him a sure and speedy poison in a small glass case; and to the few in whom he placed confidence, he made no mystery of his resolution.

* * * * At the beginning of November, the net seemed to have closed completely round him. The Russians were in the field, and were spreading devastation through his eastern provinces. Silesia was overrun by the Austrians. A great French army was advancing from the west under the command of Marshal Soubise, a prince of the great Armorican house of Rohan. Berlin itself had been taken and plundered by the Croats. Such was the situation from which Frederick extricated himself, with dazzling glory, in the short space of thirty days.

He marched first against Soubise. On the fifth of November, the armies met at Rosbach. The French were two to one; but they were ill-disciplined, and their general was a dunce. The tactics of Frederick, and the well-regulated valour of the Prussian troops, obtained a complete victory. Seven thousand of the invaders were made prisoners. Their guns, their colours, their baggage, fell into the hands of the conquerors. Those who escaped fled as confusedly as a mob scattered by cavalry. Victorious in the west, the king turned his arms towards Silesia. In that quarter every thing seemed to be lost. Breslau had fallen; and Charles of Lorraine, with a mighty power, held the whole province. On the fifth of December, exactly one month after the battle of Rosbach, Frederick, with forty thou-

sand men, and Prince Charles, at the head of not less than sixty thousand, met at Leuthen, hard by Breslau. The king, who was, in general, perhaps, too much inclined to consider the common soldier as a mere machine, resorted, on this great day, to means resembling those which Bonaparte afterwards employed with such signal success for the purpose of stimulating military enthusiasm. The principal officers were convoked. Frederick addressed them with great force and pathos, and directed them to speak to their men as he had spoken to them. When the armies were set in battle array, the Prussian troops were in a state of fierce excitement; but their excitement showed itself after the fashion of a grave people. The columns advanced to the attack chanting, to the sound of drums and fifes, the rude hymns of the old Saxon *Hernholds*. They had never fought so well; nor had the genius of their chief ever been so conspicuous. "That battle," said Napoleon, "was a masterpiece. Of itself it is sufficient to entitle Frederick to a place in the first rank among generals." The victory was complete. Twenty-seven thousand Austrians were killed, wounded, or taken; fifty stand of colours, a hundred guns, four thousand wagons, fell into the hands of the Prussians. Breslau opened its gates; Silesia was reconquered; Charles of Lorraine retired to hide his shame and sorrow at Brussels; and Frederick allowed his troops to take some repose in winter-quarters, after a campaign, to the vicissitudes of which it will be difficult to find any parallel in ancient or modern history.

The news of the battle of Rosbach stirred the blood of the whole of the mighty population from the Alps to the Baltic, and from the borders of Courland to those of Lorraine. Westphalia and Lower Saxony had been deluged by a great host of strangers, whose speech was unintelligible, and whose petulant and licentious manners had excited the strongest feelings of disgust and hatred. That great host had been put to flight by a small band of German warriors, led by a prince of German blood on the side of father and mother, and marked by the fair hair and the clear blue eye of Germany. Never, since the dissolution of the empire of Charlemagne, had the Teutonic race won such a field against the French. The tidings called forth a general burst of delight and pride from the whole of the great

family which spoke the various dialects of the ancient language of Arminius. The fame of Frederick began to supply, in some degree, the place of a common government and of a common capital. It became a rallying point for all true Germans—a subject of mutual congratulation to the Bavarian and the Westphalian, to the citizen of Frankfort and the citizen of Nuremberg. Then first it was manifest that the Germans were truly a nation. Then first was discernible that patriotic spirit which, in 1813, achieved the great deliverance of central Europe, and which still guards, and long will guard, against foreign ambition, the old freedom of the Rhine.

Nor were the effects produced by that celebrated day merely political. The greatest masters of German poetry and eloquence have admitted that, though the great king neither valued nor understood his native language, though he looked on France as the only seat of taste and philosophy, yet, in his own despite, he did much to emancipate the genius of his countrymen from the foreign yoke; and that, in the act of vanquishing Soubise, he was, unintentionally, rousing the spirit which soon began to question the literary precedence of Boileau and Voltaire. So strangely do events confound all the plans of man. A prince who read only French, who wrote only French, who ranked as a French classic, became, quite unconsciously, the means of liberating half the continent from the dominion of that French criticism, of which he was himself, to the end of his life, a slave. Yet even the enthusiasm of Germany, in favour of Frederick, hardly equalled the enthusiasm of England. The birth-day of her ally was celebrated with as much enthusiasm as that of her own sovereign, and at night the streets of London were in a blaze with illuminations. Portraits of the hero of Rosbach, with his cocked hat and long pig-tail, were in every house. An attentive observer will, at this day, find in the parlours of old-fashioned inns, and in the portfolios of print-sellers, twenty portraits of Frederick for one of George II. The sign-painters were everywhere employed in touching up Admiral Vernon into the king of Prussia. Some young Englishmen of rank proposed to visit Germany as volunteers, for the purpose of learning the art of war under the greatest of commanders. This last proof of British attachment and admiration, Frederick politely but firmly declined. His camp was no place for amateur stu-

dents of military science. The Prussian discipline was rigorous even to cruelty. The officers, while in the field, were expected to practise an abstemiousness and self-denial such as was hardly surpassed by the most rigid monastic orders. However noble their birth, however high their rank in the service, they were not permitted to eat from any thing better than pewter. It was a high crime even in a count and field-marshal to have a single silver spoon among his baggage. Gay young Englishmen of twenty thousand a year, accustomed to liberty and to luxury, would not easily submit to these Spartan restraints. The king could not venture to keep them in order as he kept his own subjects in order. Situated as he was with respect to England, he could not well imprison or shoot refractory Howards and Cavendishes. On the other hand, the example of a few fine gentlemen, attended by chariots and livery servants, eating in plate, and drinking champagne and tokay, was enough to corrupt his whole army. He thought it best to make a stand at first, and civilly refused to admit such dangerous companions among his troops.

The help of England was bestowed in a manner far more useful and more acceptable. An annual subsidy of near seven hundred thousand pounds enabled the king to add probably more than fifty thousand men to his army. Pitt, now at the height of power and popularity, undertook the task of defending Western Germany against France, and asked Frederick only for the loan of a general. The general selected was Prince Ferdinand of Brunswick, who had attained a high distinction in the Prussian service. He was put at the head of an army, partly English, partly Hanoverian, partly composed of mercenaries hired from the petty princes of the empire. He soon vindicated the choice of the two allied courts, and proved himself the second general of the age.

Frederick passed the winter at Breslau, in reading, writing, and preparing for the next campaign. The havoc which the war had made among his troops was rapidly repaired; and in the spring of 1758 he was again ready for the conflict. Prince Ferdinand kept the French in check. The king, in the mean time, after attempting against the Austrians some operations which led to no very important result, marched to encounter the Russians, who, slaying, burning, and wasting wherever they

turned, had penetrated into the heart of his realm. He gave them battle at Zorndorf, near Frankfort on the Oder. The fight was long and bloody. Quarter was neither given nor taken; for the Germans and Scythians regarded each other with bitter aversion, and the sight of the ravages committed by the half-savage invaders had incensed the king and his army. The Russians were overthrown with great slaughter, and for a few months no further danger was to be apprehended from the east.

A day of thanksgiving was proclaimed by the king, and was celebrated with pride and delight by his people. The rejoicings in England were not less enthusiastic nor less sincere. This may be selected as the point of time at which the military glory of Frederick reached the zenith. In the short space of three-quarters of a year he had won three great battles over the armies of three mighty and warlike monarchies—France, Austria, and Russia.

But it was decreed that the temper of that strong mind should be tried by both extremes of fortune in rapid succession. Close upon this bright series of triumphs came a series of disasters, such as would have blighted the fame and broken the heart of almost any other commander. Yet Frederick, in the midst of his calamities, was still an object of admiration to his subjects, his allies, and his enemies. Overwhelmed by adversity, sick of life, he still maintained the contest—greater in defeat, in flight, and in what seemed hopeless ruin, than on the fields of his proudest victories.

Having vanquished the Russians, he hastened into Saxony to oppose the troops of the empress-queen, commanded by Daun, the most cautious, and Laudohn, the most inventive and enterprising of her generals. These two celebrated commanders agreed on a scheme, in which the prudence of the one and the vigour of the other seem to have happily combined. At dead of night they surprised the king in his camp at Hochkirchen. His presence of mind saved his troops from destruction; but nothing could save them from defeat and severe loss. Marshal Keith was among the slain. The first roar of the guns roused the noble exile from his rest, and he was instantly in the front of the battle. He received a dangerous wound, but refused to quit the field, and was in the act of rallying his broken troops, when an Austrian bullet terminated his chequered and eventful life.

The misfortune was serious. But of all generals Frederick understood best how to repair defeat, and Daun understood least how to improve victory. In a few days the Prussian army was as formidable as before the battle. The prospect was, however, gloomy. An Austrian army under General Harsch had invaded Silesia, and invested the fortress of Neisse. Daun, after his success at Hochkirchen, had written to Harsch in very confident terms :—"Go on with your operations against Neisse. Be quite at ease as to the king. I will give you a good account of him." In truth, the position of the Prussians was full of difficulties. Between them and Silesia lay the victorious army of Daun. It was not easy for them to reach Silesia at all. If they did reach it, they left Saxony exposed to the Austrians. But the vigour and activity of Frederick surmounted every obstacle. He made a circuitous march of extraordinary rapidity, passed Daun, hastened into Silesia, raised the siege of Neisse, and drove Harsch into Bohemia. Daun availed himself of the king's absence to attack Dresden. The Prussians defended it desperately. The inhabitants of that wealthy and polished capital begged in vain for mercy from the garrison within, and from the besiegers without. The beautiful suburbs were burned to the ground. It was clear that the town, if won at all, would be won street by street by the bayonet. At this conjuncture came news, that Frederick, having cleared Silesia of his enemies, was returning by forced marches into Saxony. Daun retired from before Dresden, and fell back into the Austrian territories. The king, over heaps of ruins, made his triumphant entry into the unhappy metropolis, which had so cruelly expiated the weak and perfidious policy of its sovereign. It was now the 20th of November. The cold weather suspended military operations ; and the king again took up his winter quarters at Breslau.

The third of the seven terrible years was over, and Frederick still stood his ground. The fourth campaign, the most disastrous of all the campaigns of this fearful war, now opened. The Austrians filled Saxony, and menaced Berlin. The Russians defeated the king's generals on the Oder, threatened Silesia, effected a junction with Laudohn, and intrenched themselves strongly at Kunersdorf. Frederick hastened to attack them. A great battle was fought. During the earlier part of the day everything yielded to the impetuosity of the Prussians, and to the skill

of their chief. The lines were forced. Half the Russian guns were taken. The king sent off a courier to Berlin with two lines, announcing a complete victory. But, in the mean time, the stubborn Russians, defeated yet unbroken, had taken up their stand in an almost impregnable position, on an eminence where the Jews of Frankfort were wont to bury their dead. Here the battle recommenced. The Prussian infantry, exhausted by six hours of hard fighting under a sun which equalled the tropical heat, were yet brought up repeatedly to the attack, but in vain. The king led three charges in person. Two horses were killed under him. The officers of his staff fell around him. His coat was pierced by several bullets. All was in vain. His infantry was driven back with frightful slaughter. Terror began to spread fast from man to man. At that moment, the fiery cavalry of Laudohn, still fresh, rushed on the wavering ranks. Then followed a universal rout. Frederick himself was on the point of falling into the hands of the conquerors, and was with difficulty saved by a gallant officer, who, at the head of a handful of hussars, made good a diversion of a few minutes. Shattered in body, shattered in mind, the king reached that night a village which the Cossacks had plundered; and there, in a ruined and deserted farm-house, flung himself on a heap of straw. He had sent to Berlin a second despatch very different from his first:—"Let the royal family leave Berlin. Send the archives to Potsdam. The town may make terms with the enemy."

The defeat was in truth overwhelming. Of fifty thousand men, who had that morning marched under the black eagles, not three thousand remained together. The king bethought him again of his corrosive sublimate, and wrote to bid adieu to his friends, and to give directions as to the measures to be taken in the event of his death:—"I have no resource left"—such is the language of one of his letters—"all is lost. I will not survive the ruin of my country. Farewell for ever."

But the mutual jealousies of the confederates prevented them from following up their victory. They lost a few days in loitering and squabbling; and a few days, improved by Frederick, were worth more than the years of other men. On the morning after the battle, he had got together eighteen thousand of his troops. Very soon his force amounted to thirty thousand. Guns were procured from the neighbouring fortresses; and there

was again an army. Berlin was for the present safe; but calamities came pouring on the king in uninterrupted succession. One of his generals, with a large body of troops, was taken at Maxen; another was defeated at Meissen; and when at length the campaign of 1759 closed, in the midst of a rigorous winter, the situation of Prussia appeared desperate. The only consoling circumstance was, that, in the west, Ferdinand of Brunswick had been more fortunate than his master; and by a series of exploits, of which the battle of Minden was the most glorious, had removed all apprehension of danger on the side of France.

The fifth year was now about to commence. It seemed impossible that the Prussian territories, repeatedly devastated by hundreds of thousands of invaders, could longer support the contest. But the king carried on war as no European power has ever carried on war, except the committee of Public Safety during the great agony of the French Revolution. He governed his kingdom as he would have governed a besieged town, not caring to what extent property was destroyed, or the pursuits of civil life suspended, so that he did but make head against the enemy. As long as there was a man left in Prussia, that man might carry a musket—as long as there was a horse left, that horse might draw artillery. The coin was debased, the civil functionaries were left unpaid; in some provinces civil government altogether ceased to exist. But there were still rye-bread and potatoes; there were still lead and gunpowder; and while the means of sustaining and destroying life remained, Frederick was determined to fight it out to the very last.

The earlier part of the campaign of 1760 was unfavourable to him. Berlin was again occupied by the enemy. Great contributions were levied on the inhabitants, and the royal palace was plundered. But at length, after two years of calamity, victory came back to his arms. At Lignitz he gained a great battle over Laudohn; at Torgau, after a day of horrible carnage, he triumphed over Daun. The fifth year closed, and still the event was in suspense. In the countries where the war had raged, the misery and exhaustion were more appalling than ever; but still there were left men and beasts, arms and food, and still Frederick fought on. In truth he had now been baited into savageness. His heart was ulcerated with hatred. The implacable resentment with which his enemies persecuted him, though ori-

ginally provoked by his own unprincipled ambition, excited in him a thirst for vengeance which he did not even attempt to conceal. "It is hard," he says in one of his letters, "for man to bear what I bear. I begin to feel that, as the Italians say, revenge is a pleasure for the gods. My philosophy is worn out by suffering. I am no saint, like those of whom we read in the legends; and I will own that I should die content if only I could first inflict a portion of the misery which I endure."

Borne up by such feelings, he struggled with various success, but constant glory, through the campaign of 1761. On the whole, the result of this campaign was disastrous to Prussia. No great battle was gained by the enemy; but, in spite of the desperate bounds of the hunted tiger, the circle of pursuers was fast closing round him. Laudohn had surprised the important fortress of Schweidnitz. With that fortress, half of Silesia, and the command of the most important defiles through the mountains, had been transferred to the Austrians. The Russians had overpowered the king's generals in Pomerania. The country was so completely desolated that he began, by his own confession, to look round him with blank despair, unable to imagine where recruits, horses, or provisions, were to be found.

Just at this time two great events brought on a complete change in the relations of almost all the powers of Europe. One of those events was the retirement of Mr. Pitt from office, the other was the death of the empress Elizabeth of Russia.

The retirement of Pitt seemed to be an omen of utter ruin to the house of Brandenburg. His proud and vehement nature was incapable of any thing that looked like either fear or treachery. He had often declared that, while he was in power, England should never make a peace of Utrecht;—should never, for any selfish object, abandon an ally even in the last extremity of distress. The continental war was his own war. He had been bold enough—he who in former times had attacked, with irresistible powers of oratory, the Hanoverian policy of Carteret and the German subsidies of Newcastle—to declare that Hanover ought to be as dear to us as Hampshire, and that he would conquer America in Germany. He had fallen; and the power which he had exercised, not always with discretion, but always with vigour and genius, had devolved on a favourite who was the representative of the Tory party—of the party which had

thwarted William, which had persecuted Marlborough, and which had given up the Catalans to the vengeance of Philip of Anjou. To make peace with France—to shake off with all, or more than all, the speed compatible with decency, every continental connection, these were among the chief objects of the new minister. The policy then followed inspired Frederick with an unjust, but deep and bitter aversion to the English name; and produced effects which are still felt throughout the civilized world. To that policy it was owing that, some years later England, could not find on the whole continent a single ally to stand by her, in her extreme need, against the house of Bourbon. To that policy it was owing that Frederick, alienated from England, was compelled to connect himself closely, during his later years, with Russia; and was induced reluctantly to assist in that great crime, the fruitful parent of other great crimes—the first partition of Poland.

Scarcely had the retreat of Mr. Pitt deprived Prussia of her only friend, when the death of Elizabeth produced an entire revolution in the politics of the north. The grand-duke Peter, her nephew, who now ascended the Russian throne, was not merely free from the prejudices which his aunt had entertained against Frederick, but was a worshipper, a servile imitator, a Boswell, of the great king. The days of the new czar's government were few and evil, but sufficient to produce a change in the whole state of Christendom. He set the Prussian prisoners at liberty, fitted them out decently, and sent them back to their master; he withdrew his troops from the provinces which Elizabeth had decided on incorporating with her dominions, and absolved all those Prussian subjects, who had been compelled to swear fealty to Russia, from their engagements.

Not content with concluding peace on terms favourable to Prussia, he solicited rank in the Prussian service, dressed himself in a Prussian uniform, wore the black eagle of Prussia on his breast, made preparations for visiting Prussia, in order to have an interview with the object of his idolatry, and actually sent fifteen thousand excellent troops to reinforce the shattered army of Frederick. Thus strengthened, the king speedily repaired the losses of the preceding year, reconquered Silesia, defeated Daun at Buckersdorf, invested and retook Schweidnitz, and, at the close of the year, presented to the forces of Maria

Theresa a front as formidable as before the great reverses of 1759. Before the end of the campaign, his friend, the emperor Peter, having, by a series of absurd insults to the institutions, manners, and feelings of his people, united them in hostility to his person and government, was deposed and murdered. The empress who, under the title of Catherine the Second, now assumed the supreme power, was, at the commencement of her administration, by no means partial to Frederick, and refused to permit her troops to remain under his command. But she observed the peace made by her husband, and Prussia was no longer threatened by danger from the East.

England and France, at the same time, paired off together. They concluded a treaty, by which they bound themselves to observe neutrality with respect to the German war. Thus the coalitions on both sides were dissolved, and the original enemies, Austria and Prussia, remained alone confronting each other.

Austria had undoubtedly by far greater means than Prussia, and was less exhausted by hostilities; yet it seemed hardly possible that Austria could effect alone what she had in vain attempted to effect, when supported by France on the one side and by Russia on the other. Danger also began to menace the Imperial house from another quarter. The Ottoman porte held threatening language, and a hundred thousand Turks were mustered on the frontiers of Hungary. The proud and revengeful spirit of the empress-queen at length gave way; and in February, 1763, the peace of Hubertsburg put an end to the conflict which had, during seven years, devastated Germany. The king ceded nothing. The whole continent in arms had proved unable to tear Silesia from that iron grasp.

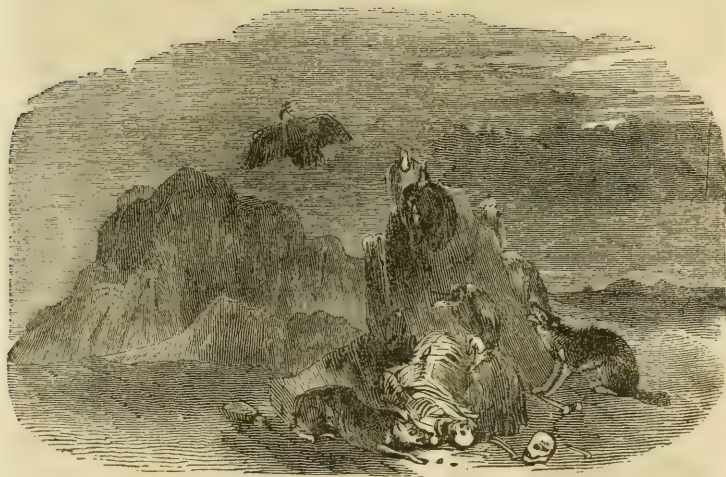
The war was over. Frederick was safe. His glory was beyond the reach of envy. If he had not made conquests as vast as those of Alexander, of Cæsar, and of Napoleon—if he had not, on the field of battle, enjoyed the constant success of Marlborough and Wellington—he had yet given an example unrivalled in history of what capacity and resolution can effect against the greatest superiority of power and the utmost spite of fortune. He entered Berlin in triumph, after an absence of more than six years. The streets were brilliantly lighted up; and, as he passed along in an open carriage, with Ferdinand of Brunswick at his side, the multitude saluted him with loud

praises and blessings. He was moved by those marks of attachment, and repeatedly exclaimed—"Long live my dear people!—long live my children!" Yet, even in the midst of that gay spectacle, he could not but perceive everywhere the traces of destruction and decay. The city had been more than once plundered. The population had considerably diminished. Berlin, however, had suffered little when compared with most parts of the kingdom. The ruin of private fortunes, the distress of all ranks, was such as might appal the firmest mind. Almost every province had been the seat of war, and of war conducted with merciless ferocity. Clouds of Croats had descended on Silesia. Tens of thousands of Cossacks had been let loose on Pomerania and Brandenburg. The mere contributions levied by the invaders amounted, it was said, to more than a hundred millions of dollars; and the value of what they extorted was probably much less than the value of what they destroyed. The fields lay uncultivated. The very seed-corn had been devoured in the madness of hunger. Famine and contagious maladies, the effect of famine, had swept away the herds and flocks, and there was reason to fear that a great pestilence among the human race was likely to follow in the train of that tremendous war. Near fifteen thousand houses had been burned to the ground.

The population of the kingdom had in seven years decreased to the frightful extent of ten per cent. A sixth of the males capable of bearing arms had actually perished on the field of battle. In some districts, no labourers, except women, were seen in the fields at harvest-time. In others, the traveller passed shuddering through a succession of silent villages, in which not a single inhabitant remained. The currency had been debased; the authority of laws and magistrates had been suspended; the whole social system was deranged. For, during that convulsive struggle, every thing that was not military violence was anarchy. Even the army was disorganized. Some great generals, and a crowd of excellent officers, had fallen, and it had been impossible to supply their places. The difficulty of finding recruits had, towards the close of the war, been so great that selection and rejection were impossible. Whole battalions were composed of deserters or of prisoners. It was hardly to be hoped that thirty years of repose and industry

would repair the ruin produced by seven years of havoc. One consolatory circumstance, indeed, there was. No debt had been incurred. The burdens of the war had been terrible,—almost insupportable; but no arrear was left to embarrass the finances in the time of peace.*

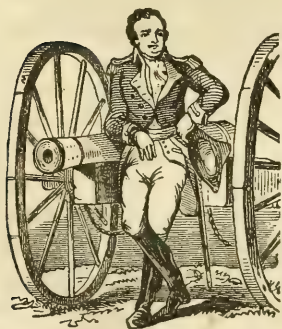
* For this account of the Seven Years' War, we are indebted to Macaulay.





WASHINGTON.

OPENING OF THE AMERICAN REVOLUTION.

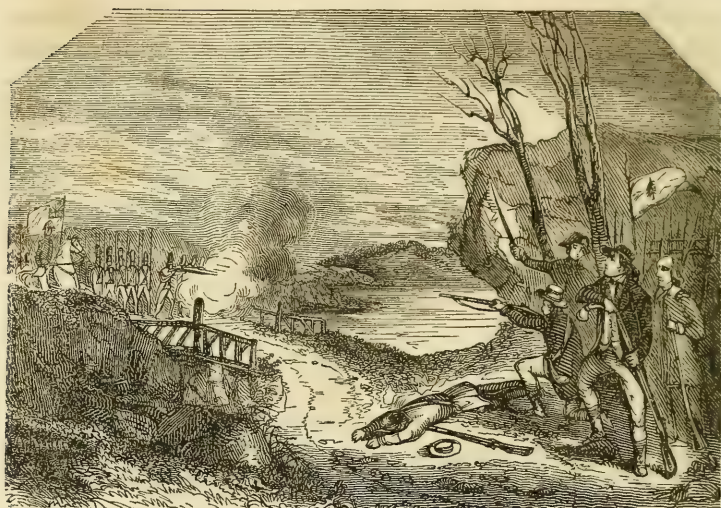


AT the close of the Seven Years' War, which terminated in America with the conquest of Canada, the British colonists in this country were well disposed towards the parent country; but an attempt on the part of the British government to restrict their commerce and subject them to stamp duties and other taxes, without representation in parliament, created strong discontent. A series of aggressions followed, such

as the quartering of troops on the people, the Boston massacre of 1770, and the shutting up of the port by the famous Boston port bill, until, in 1774, a congress composed of delegates from twelve of the thirteen colonies assembled in Philadelphia, and prepared for organized resistance to the mother country. The acts of this congress countenanced the people of Massachusetts in their resistance to the oppressive port bill; and, while addresses to the king and the people of England were voted, they hinted at the necessity of looking forward to melancholy events, and of being ready for every contingency which might arise.

The inclinations of the people were in exact agreement with the decisions of the congress. The inhabitants of Boston were supplied by contributions from all quarters. Even those who, by their situation, appeared the most likely to derive advantages from the cessation of their trade, were most forward to relieve them in their distress; and the people of Marblehead, a town at no great distance, generously offered them the use of their harbour, and of their wharfs and warehouses, free of all expense. Every one who could procure arms was diligent in learning how to use them. The whole country of Massachusetts seemed ready to rise. In the mean time, British troops assembled in greater numbers at Boston; and General Gage thought it prudent to fortify the neck of land which joins that city to the continent. He also seized the magazines of gunpowder, ammunition, and military stores at Cambridge and Charlestown; and thus, by depriving the colonists for a time of the means of annoying him, he rendered them less able to carry their designs into execution. An assembly was called, and its sitting immediately countermanded; but the representatives met, notwithstanding the proclamation of the governor, and, after waiting a day for his arrival, they voted themselves "a provincial congress." Winter approached; the people refused to supply the troops either with lodging or clothes; the *selectmen* of Boston obliged the workmen employed in erecting the barracks to desist; and the merchants of New York declared that they would "never supply any article for the benefit of men who were sent as the enemies of their country."

All hope of reconciliation with Britain was now at an end. The provincials took possession of the stores which belonged to



BATTLE OF CONCORD.

the government wherever they were able to secure them ; and at Newport, in Rhode Island, the inhabitants carried off no fewer than forty pieces of cannon, intended for the defence of the place, alleging that they seized them in order to prevent them from being used against their liberties and their lives. The assemblies in all the colonies voted that ammunition should be procured at the general expense ; and it required but little foresight to discover that a civil war, with all its fearful consequences, was about to ensue.

General Gage, having received intelligence that a number of field-pieces were collected at Salem, despatched a party of soldiers to take possession of them in the name of the king. The people, however, assembling in great numbers, prevented the military from advancing to the town by pulling up a drawbridge which it was necessary for them to pass, and they returned to the governor without accomplishing their purpose. The next attempt was followed by more interesting consequences. The provincials had deposited a large quantity of ammunition and stores at Concord, about twenty miles from Boston ; these General Gage resolved to seize or to destroy, and with that view he sent a detachment of eight hundred men, under the command of Major Pitcairn and Colonel Smith, ordering them to

proceed with the utmost expedition, and with all possible secrecy. But, notwithstanding his care and the alacrity of the soldiers, the provincials had immediate notice of his design; and, when the British troops arrived at Lexington, within five miles of Concord, the militia of the place were drawn up on the parade and ready to receive them. A skirmish ensuing, several of the Americans were killed. The rest fled without making any further resistance; and the detachment, proceeding to Concord, destroyed or took possession of the stores which were there. Having effected their purpose, the military now began to retire; but the colonists, pressing upon them on all sides, they were driven from post to post till they arrived at Lexington, where, their ammunition being expended, they must infallibly have been cut off, if Lord Percy had not been sent by the governor with a strong party to their assistance. In consequence of this reinforcement, they quitted Lexington and continued their march towards Boston, which they reached the day after, though not without frequent interruption and very great difficulty. In the affair of Lexington, which has been justly regarded as the commencement of the American war, and in the retreat from that place, the British lost nearly two hundred and fifty men.

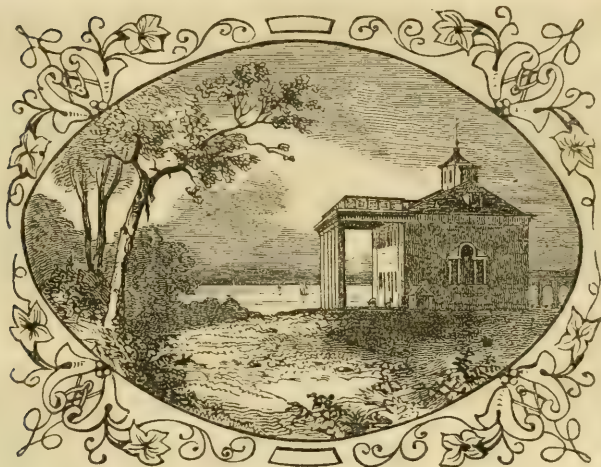
The colonists, elevated with their success in this engagement, became more and more fixed in their opposition, and even meditated the total expulsion of the English from Boston. An army of twenty thousand men encamped in the neighbourhood of the city, and that force was soon increased by the arrival of the troops from Connecticut, under General Putnam, an officer of great bravery and of tried skill in the military art; but Gage had fortified the town so strongly, that, numerous as they were, the provincials durst not attempt it by assault; while, on the other hand, the governor was too weak to contend with them in the field. It was not long, however, before he was able to act on the offensive. A powerful reinforcement arrived from England, under Generals Howe, Burgoyne, and Clinton. Martial law was proclaimed, and pardon was offered to such as would return to their allegiance.

On the 16th of June, A. D. 1775, the Americans took possession of Bunker's Hill, an eminence which overlooks and commands the town of Boston, and, labouring with incredible

diligence and secrecy, they threw up a redoubt, and protected it by means of an intrenchment, before the approach of day enabled the British to discover what they had done. From this position General Gage thought it necessary to dislodge them. Accordingly, he directed a strong body of men, under the orders of Generals Howe and Pigot, to land at the foot of Bunker's Hill, and to proceed with a detachment of the artillery against the Americans. But the latter, having the advantage of the ground, poured upon them such an incessant and deadly fire of musketry that the British were thrown into confusion, and so many of the officers were killed that General Howe was left almost alone. Yet, though twice repulsed, the king's troops rallied and advanced again towards the fortifications which the provincials had erected. The redoubt was now attacked on three sides at once; the ammunition of the colonists began to fail; and the British pressing forward, the Americans were constrained to abandon the post, and to retreat in the face of the enemy over Charlestown Neck; where they were exposed to a galling fire from the ships in the harbour. In this battle, the town of Charlestown, which is separated from Boston by a narrow sheet of water, was reduced to ashes by the orders of General Pigot, who was saved by that measure, as well as by the arrival of General Clinton, from the ignominy of a defeat.

Though the victory in the attack at Bunker's Hill was justly claimed by the royalists, it was not gained without considerable loss on their part. The flower of the English troops in America were engaged, and their killed and wounded amounted to ten hundred and fifty-four; while those of the provincials were not above the half of that number. But, while the colonists suffered a defeat in this encounter, they were elated in no ordinary degree at the intrepidity which their forces had displayed; and they entertained the hope that patriotism and an ardent love of freedom would enable them to withstand the assaults of the British, till experience should render them equal to them in discipline and military skill.

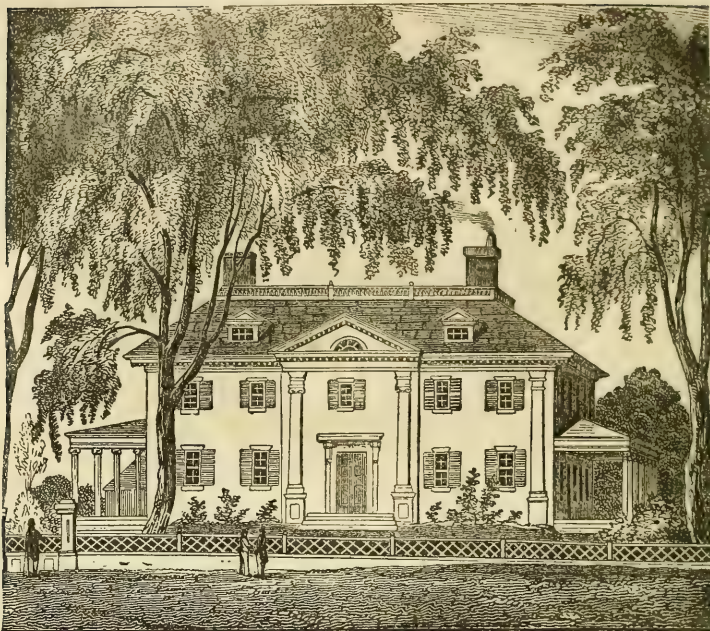
They erected fortifications on the heights in the neighbourhood of Charlestown, and reduced the king's troops in Boston to very great distress for want of provisions. Far from entertaining any thought of submission, they redoubled their exertions, and increased their vigilance. In the mean time, the



MOUNT VERNON.

congress, which had again been assembled, acted with all the decision which was expected from them: they drew up articles of perpetual union; they published a declaration in which they justified the measures which had been adopted at Bunker's Hill; they resolved to establish an army, and to issue a large quantity of paper money in order to support it. They held a solemn conference with the Indians, by whom they were surrounded, telling them that the English had begun the war with a view to enslave them, as well as their own countrymen in America; and by this, in conjunction with other arguments, they induced many of the savage tribes either to assist them, or to remain neuter during a great part of the contest which followed.

The provincials now wanted nothing but a leader to enable them to take effectual measures against the British, and they soon found, in the person of George Washington, a man qualified in every respect to occupy that high and important station. He was the third son of Augustine Washington, a settler in Virginia. His education was limited to what could be obtained from books written in the English language; but he derived from nature a mind of extraordinary capacity, and was endowed with prudence, courage, and perseverance, beyond the degree which is allotted to common men. At the age of nineteen, he held the rank of major in the provincial troops of Virginia.



WASHINGTON'S HEAD-QUARTERS AT CAMBRIDGE.

He afterwards distinguished himself against the French, in their attempts to unite their possessions in Canada with those in Louisiana, and had the command of a regiment about the same time. At the conclusion of the war, which terminated in the surrender of Canada to the British, he retired to his estate of Mount Vernon, and devoted himself to agricultural employments, till the troubles in which the Americans were involved led him to take an active part in their defence against the attempts of the English cabinet to tax them without their consent. He was chosen a member of the first grand congress at Philadelphia, where his example and influence produced very considerable effects; and now that the situation of the provincials called for a man of tried firmness and approved judgment, he was unanimously elected "general and commander-in-chief of the army of the united colonies." When his appointment was intimated to him by the president of the congress, he modestly observed that he was not equal to the duties of the station to which their partiality had raised him; but he declared

at the same time that he was ready to exert whatever talents he might have in the service of his country, and willing to enter immediately on the performance of his duty.

On arriving at Cambridge, the head-quarters of the American army, General Washington inspected and reviewed the troops. He found them animated with great zeal, and prepared to follow him to the most desperate undertakings; but it was not long before he perceived that they were unacquainted with subordination, and strangers to military discipline. The spirit of liberty, which had brought them together, showed itself in all their actions. In the province of Massachusetts, the officers had been chosen by the votes of the soldiers, and felt themselves in no degree superior to them. The congressional and colonial authorities likewise interfered with one another. The troops were scantily supplied with arms and ammunition, and all their operations were retarded by the want of engineers. These difficulties, however, were overcome by the talents and perseverance of Washington; he formed the soldiers into brigades, and accustomed them to obedience; he requested the congress to nominate a commissary-general, a quartermaster-general, and a paymaster-general, all of which officers they had neglected to appoint; a number of the most active men were constantly employed in learning to manage the artillery; and such were the efforts of the commander-in-chief, that in no very long time the army was completely organized and fit for service.

It was not the temper of Washington to remain inactive. His troops were speedily and regularly encamped before the town of Boston, and occupied a space of ground nearly twelve miles in length. The English were strongly intrenched on Bunker's Hill and Roxbury Neck, and defended by the floating batteries in Mystic river and a ship-of-war that lay between Boston and Charlestown. The American general determined, after a long blockade, to force General Howe, who had succeeded General Gage in the chief command, either to meet the provincials in the field or to evacuate Boston, and with this intention he opened his batteries on the east and west sides of the town, (March 2, 1776,) and continued the bombardment without interruption. Howe, finding that the place was no longer tenable, resolved, if possible, to drive the colonial troops from their works. A vigorous attack was meditated on



SIEGE OF BOSTON.

Dorchester Neck, which they had fortified with great care, and every thing was in readiness, when a dreadful storm prevented the British from making the attempt; and next day it was thought advisable to desist from it altogether. Nothing remained, therefore, but to evacuate the town. The Americans, however, did not annoy the English in their retreat, as they knew that it was in their power to reduce the place to ashes—a loss which the labour of many years and the profits of the most successful trade could not easily have repaired. For this reason they allowed them to embark with great deliberation, and to take with them whatever might be thought necessary for their voyage, together with as many of the inhabitants as chose rather to leave their country than expose themselves to the consequences of their attachment to the royal cause. After remaining for some time in Nantasket road, the whole fleet set sail; and the army of the Americans proceeded in divisions to New York, which Washington supposed to be the place to which the English were gone.

During these transactions at Boston, events of considerable importance took place in other parts of America. The for-



DEATH OF MONTGOMERY.

tresses of Crown Point and Ticonderoga having been occupied by the provincials some time before, the reduction of Canada appeared to be more obvious and easy. Three thousand men, under the command of Generals Schuyler and Montgomery, were sent by the orders of the congress into that country, where they were opposed by the English general Carleton, an officer of much experience and activity. The provincials laid siege to St. John's, and the British commander made haste to relieve the place. But he was attacked by the provincials with a superior force while yet on his march, and, being utterly defeated, was compelled to retire to Quebec. The garrison of St. John's surrendered themselves prisoners of war; Montreal was taken by General Montgomery; Arnold penetrated into Canada with a strong body of Americans during all the severity of winter; and, after uniting his forces with those of Montgomery, he endeavoured to take Quebec by surprise. But, after a desperate engagement, in which Montgomery was killed, together with the best part of his officers, the provincials were overpowered, and forced to abandon the attempt. Arnold, having removed to some distance from Quebec, was enabled, by the

kindness of the people, to endure the hardships of an encampment in the midst of winter, and under a climate to the rigour of which his soldiers were but little accustomed. Notwithstanding his defeat, he was created a brigadier by the unanimous voice of the congress. General Sullivan then took the command of the provincial troops. The Americans were defeated with great loss at the Three Rivers, and were finally obliged to retire from Canada.

In Virginia, the war was carried on with great activity, and was in general favourable to the American interest.



LORD PERCY.



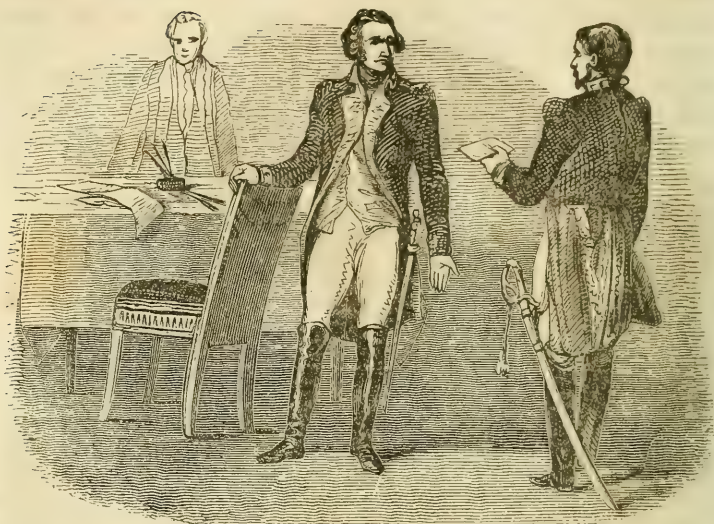
GENERAL WAYNE.

CAMPAIGN OF 1776.



A**F****T****E****R** all attempts towards a reconciliation with Great Britain appeared to be fruitless, the congress proceeded in full assembly to renounce their allegiance to the sovereign of that country, and to declare that the United Colonies were independent of all authority in Europe.

After the declaration of independence, the Americans had to struggle with great difficulties in supporting their pretensions. The



WASHINGTON REFUSING TO RECEIVE HOWE'S LETTER.

king's standard was erected in North Carolina, by Colonel McDonald; and Charleston, the capital of South Carolina, was furiously attacked by a fleet from England. McDonald, however, being met by the provincial general Moore, was totally defeated by that officer; and the bombardment from the ships, though violent and continued for a long time, produced no great effect upon the town.

But as the chief part of the colonial troops was assembled in the division of New York, under Washington, their commander, and as that province was most accessible by sea, the English resolved to make an attempt upon it with all their forces. Six ships of the line, and thirty frigates, with many smaller vessels, composed the fleet. It was under the orders of Lord Howe, who had arrived from Europe some time before, and the land army was commanded by Sir William Howe, his brother. Soon after his appearance off the coast, Lord Howe sent a letter to the American commander-in-chief, addressed to "George Washington, Esq."; but the general refused to open it, as the address was not in a style corresponding to the dignity of the situation which he held. Another letter was sent directed to "George

Washington, &c. &c. &c.”; but this also was refused. “It did not acknowledge,” he said, “the public character with which he was invested by the congress, and in no other character would he have any intercourse with his lordship.” The communication, however, to which these letters gave rise, afforded the British an opportunity of exerting themselves in order to effect a reconciliation. With this view, the American general was informed, that Lord Howe was invested with full powers to receive the submission of the colonists, and to reinstate them in the favour of their lawful sovereign; but Washington declared, that these powers appeared to consist in nothing but granting pardons; and that as the provincials, in defending their rights, had been guilty of no crime, they required no forgiveness.

Both sides, therefore, prepared to terminate their disputes by arms; and hostilities began as soon as the English troops were collected at their appointed stations. The character of the forces which were now about to engage was very different. The British were numerous, regularly disciplined, and accustomed to military operations; while the Americans were inferior in numbers, and inexperienced, newly embodied, and not well provided with artillery and ammunition. Washington marked the condition of his army with very great concern. It amounted to no more than eighteen thousand effective men; while that of the English was nearly twenty-five thousand strong. As the American government had no established revenue, and as the sources of their commerce were completely dried up, the difficulties which the general had to encounter were such as no human ability and perseverance could easily surmount.

Notwithstanding the difficulties which Washington had to encounter, he maintained his positions, and availed himself of every circumstance which might encourage his troops or improve their discipline. He animated them by his exhortations and example; he told them that the day was approaching which would decide whether the American people were to be freemen or slaves; and he informed them, that the happiness of myriads yet unborn depended on their courage and conduct. He promised rewards to those who should distinguish themselves by acts of extraordinary bravery, and threatened such as were doubtful or dilatory with the utmost severity of punishment, if

they should desert the cause in which they were engaged. The time was at hand when the effect of these exhortations was to be ascertained. In the month of August, A. D. 1776, the English made a descent upon Long Island, with forty pieces of cannon, and under cover of their ships. On a peninsula, formed by the East river and Cowan's cove, and constituting part of the same island, lay Putnam, the American general, strongly fortified, and waiting the approach of the king's troops. Between the armies there was a range of hills, the principal pass through which was near a place called Flatbush. At this place, the Hessians, forming the centre of the royalists, took their station. The left wing, under the orders of General Grant, was close upon the shore, and the right, commanded by General Clinton, Earl Percy, and Lord Cornwallis, and comprehending the chief strength of the British forces, approached the opposite coast of Flat Land. Putnam had directed that all the passes should be secured by strong detachments of the provincial troops. The orders to this purpose, though not disobeyed, were not complied with to the extent which that general required; and one road through the hills, of the utmost importance, was entirely neglected; an oversight which was speedily communicated to the British, and which they were too wise not to improve to their advantage. On the evening of the 26th, General Clinton drew off the right wing of the English army, in order to gain the heights. Nearly about daybreak, he reached the pass undiscovered by the enemy, and immediately took possession of it. The detachment under Lord Percy followed, and when the day appeared, the royalists advanced into the level country between the hills and Brooklyn, a village situated on the peninsula, where the Americans were encamped. Without loss of time, Clinton fell upon the rear of the provincials, and the Hessians attacking them in front at the same instant, neither valour nor skill could save them from a defeat. Inspired, however, by their generals, and the presence of Washington, they continued the engagement for a while, and fought with all the bravery of men whom the love of freedom animates to deeds of heroism; but pressed by superior numbers, and thrown into confusion, they gave way on every side, and fled with the utmost precipitation to the woods. Nor was this the only part of the army which suffered; the right wing, engaged with General



GENERAL PUTNAM.



RETREAT FROM LONG ISLAND.

Grant, experienced a similar fate. And thus, in one fatal day, the Americans lost four thousand of their best troops, and, what was of more value to them, their confidence of success; a confidence which till now had supported them amidst all their sufferings, and had established in their minds a resolution of parting with their liberty only with their lives. In this engagement the British fought with extraordinary valour, and their antagonists, though less experienced in the art of war, were equally distinguished by the steadiness of their conduct. Of a regiment consisting of young gentlemen from Maryland, the greater part was cut in pieces, and not one of those who survived had escaped without a wound.

After the defeat at Brooklyn, and the evacuation of Long Island by the Americans, proposals for an accommodation were made by Lord Howe. But as his lordship was not authorized to treat with the congress as a legal assembly, he invited such of its members as were desirous of peace to a private conference. To this invitation the congress replied, that as they were the



LORD HOWE.

representatives of the free and independent states of America, it was not possible for them to send any of their number, to confer with the English commanders in their individual capacity ; but that, as it was exceedingly to be wished that an accommodation should take place on reasonable terms, they would direct a committee to receive the proposals of the British government. Accordingly they nominated for this purpose, the celebrated Dr. Franklin, Mr. J. Adams, and Mr. Rutledge, all zealous and faithful in the cause of liberty. But notwithstanding the disposition of Lord Howe, which was certainly towards peace, and the late misfortunes of the provincial troops, the conference was altogether ineffectual : his lordship would not acknowledge the deputies as the commissioners of a free people ; and the deputies would not treat with him on any other condition. It was resolved therefore, on both sides, to prosecute the war with all their vigour and their utmost resources.

The provincial army under the orders of Washington was now stationed in the vicinity of New York. They had erected

many batteries near the place, and from these they kept up an incessant fire upon the British ships. Between the armies lay the East river, which the royalists, for some days, had manifested a desire to cross. Accordingly, after the fleet had silenced the American batteries, they landed on the opposite shore, at Kipp's Bay, nearly three miles distant from New York; and marching rapidly towards the city, they forced the enemy to abandon their works, and to retreat with the utmost precipitation. Leaving the town itself, and their baggage, provisions, and military stores, in possession of the British, the Americans withdrew to the northern part of the island, where the chief strength of their forces was collected. Here Washington determined to wait the approach of the king's troops, and in the mean time, he used every method in his power to restore the courage of his soldiers, and elevate their fallen hopes. He had long ago formed that plan of operations which is usually successful against an invading army; though with the intention of deviating from it as circumstances might require. It was his design at present, not to risk a general engagement, but to harass the English by continual skirmishes, by cutting off their supplies, and exhausting their patience. The object of the British general was exactly the contrary of this; his safety, as well as his success, lay in bringing the Americans speedily to action, and in terminating the war, if possible, by a single blow. The fortune of the royalists was now predominant. In almost every attack the superiority of regular discipline had been shown. Washington had been forced to quit his strong position at Kingsbridge, in New York Island, and had saved his army by retiring towards the main land of Connecticut. He was followed by the English general as soon as the troops could be landed, and the proper reinforcements had arrived.

After some ineffectual skirmishing, both armies met at a place called the White Plains; the royalists began the assault, and made such an impression on the American lines that Washington was compelled again to retreat. He withdrew in good order, and occupied an advantageous post at a considerable distance from that which he had just abandoned. But Sir William Howe, finding himself unable to bring on a general action, relinquished the pursuit, and employed his troops during the rest of the campaign, in reducing and taking possession of the forts



SIR HENRY CLINTON.

which the enemy still retained in the vicinity of New York. In this he succeeded to his utmost wish; the Jerseys were laid open to the incursions of the British forces, and if the Americans had not seized the boats, and removed them to a distance, Philadelphia itself must have fallen into the hands of the royal army.

In other parts of the continent, the success of the British was equally great. Sir Henry Clinton took possession of Rhode Island without losing a man. The American fleet under Commodore Hopkins was obliged to remain in the river Providence, entirely useless. In Canada, General Burgoyne, who had already distinguished himself against the provincials, and forced them to retreat across Lake Champlain to Crown Point, ordered

a number of ships to be built; and attacking those of the republicans, commanded by Arnold, defeated them with great slaughter; compelling them to run their vessels ashore, and to set them on fire. The consequence of this disaster was, that the garrison of Crown Point, having destroyed or carried off their provisions and military stores, retired to Ticonderoga.

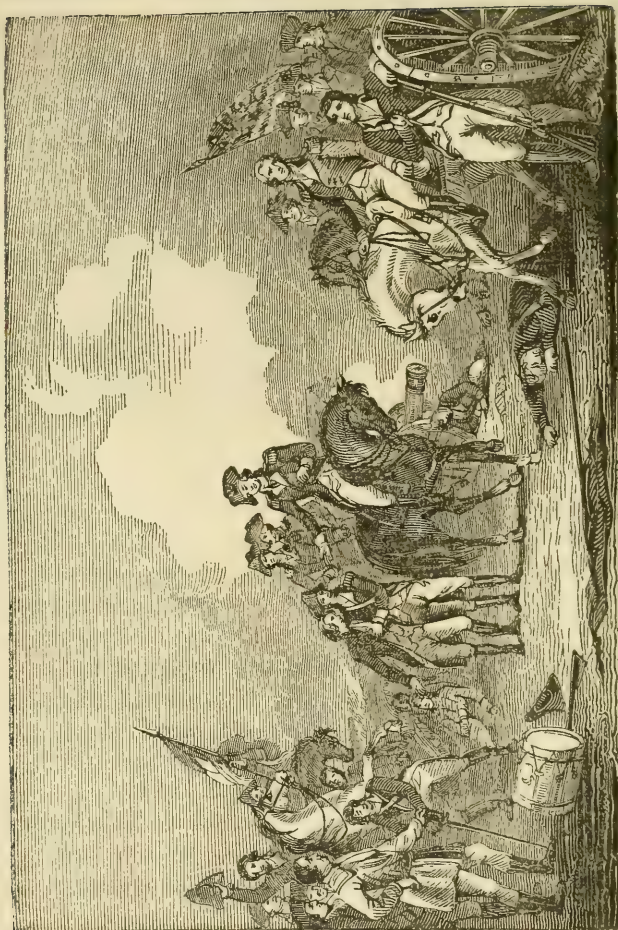
In the midst of these calamitous events, the spirit of Washington remained unbroken. Though his soldiers had deserted him in great numbers, and though Charles Lee, one of the ablest of the provincial generals, had been taken prisoner, he never despaired of success. He had frequently written to the congress, and represented to that body the condition of his army. It was originally composed of a loose militia, and of volunteers from the different provinces, once full of patriotism, and eager to engage; but now, dispirited by misfortune, and ready to abandon their general on the first appearance of the king's troops. In addition to this, the time during which the militia were bound to serve had almost expired. The congress, therefore, determined to recruit the army, by offering a bounty in land to all those who would enrol their names, and pledge themselves to continue in the field during the remainder of the war. Their efforts were nobly seconded by the zeal and activity of the commander-in-chief. He kept his troops constantly employed; and being successful in many of the skirmishes in which they were engaged, and reinforced by numbers of their countrymen, the soldiers began to resume their wonted courage, and to be animated with better hopes. When the English approached Philadelphia, the American general had thrown himself into that city, and strengthened it by every method in his power. The royal army now lay in cantonments at some distance from the place; they occupied a great extent of country, and one of the divisions, consisting of the Hessians in the king's service, was stationed at Trenton, about thirty miles from the American capital. This division Washington resolved to attack, and, if possible, to surprise. Accordingly, he put himself at the head of a body of his troops; and after crossing the Delaware and marching all night, with the utmost expedition which the roads would allow, he fell upon the enemy, who had not the slightest intelligence of his approach, and routed them with great slaughter. Colonel Rawle, who commanded the royalists in that quarter, did



WASHINGTON CROSSING THE DELAWARE.

every thing which could be expected from an officer at once brave and accustomed to military operations; but the attack was sudden and impetuous, and directed by Washington himself; the Hessians gave way on all sides; their artillery was seized, and one thousand of their best troops remained prisoners of war.

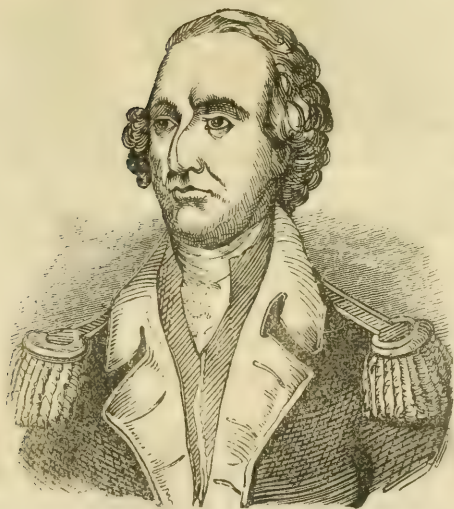
Some of the colonial reinforcements having at length arrived, the provincial army not only increased in numbers, but improved in courage and zeal. Emboldened by his success, Washington resolved to leave Philadelphia, and to make another attempt against the British forces. In consequence of this determination, he advanced with great secrecy towards Maidenhead-town, situated between Trenton and Princeton, where three regiments, under Colonel Mawhood, had taken post; and, attacking the royalists on their march, he threw them into confusion, and obliged them to retreat with considerable loss. The British troops, astonished at the exertions of the American commander, whose affairs they supposed to be desperate, withdrew towards Brunswick, in order to prevent that town, and the stores which it contained, from falling into the hands of the provincial army. Washington lost no time in availing himself of their retreat. He divided his troops into small bodies, which, though dispersed over an extensive country, could be united



BATTLE OF TRENTON.

without difficulty ; and, by his activity, vigilance, and skill, he soon regained possession of all the important places.

Thus terminated the campaign of 1776, and not altogether unfavourably to the American interest : for though the provincial troops had often been worsted, and still more frequently obliged to retreat, yet they prosecuted their design of harassing the enemy with great success ; and while the royalists kept possession of New York, they were constrained to act with as much circumspection as if Washington and the whole force of the colonists had besieged them in that city.



GENERAL CHARLES LEE.



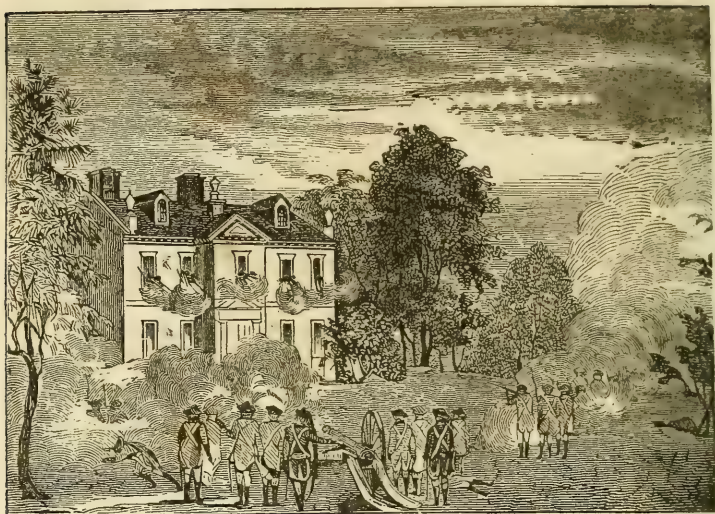
GENERAL HOWE.

CAMPAIGN OF 1777.

THE next campaign opened with considerable indications of vigour on the part of Sir William Howe. After a number of predatory excursions, in which some forts were reduced and magazines destroyed, that general resolved to make an attempt on Philadelphia. It was at first thought that this could be done by marching through the Jerseys; but Washington, now in possession of the open country, and strongly reinforced, had taken his measures so effectually that it was declared to be impracticable. It was therefore determined to approach Philadelphia

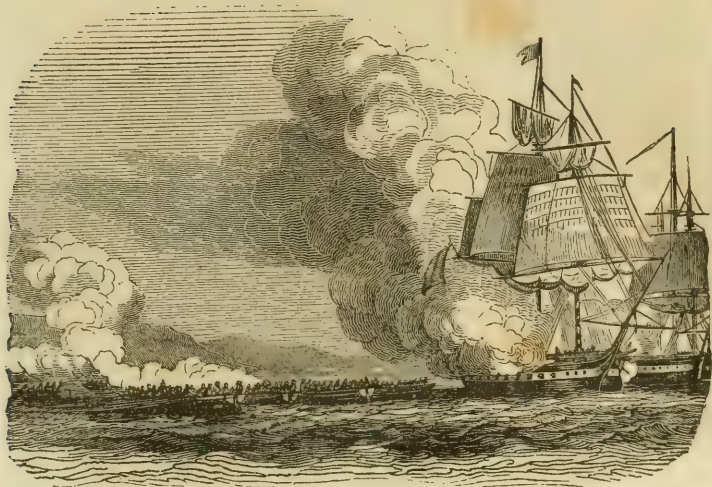
by sea. The expedition, led by the British general in person, sailed on the 23d of July from Sandy Hook; on the 29th, the troops arrived at the mouth of the Delaware; but having received intelligence, that the navigation of that river was effectually obstructed, they proceeded to Chesapeake bay, in Maryland, from which they could in a short time reach the capital of Pennsylvania. At length, sailing up the Elk as far as was practicable, the royal army, to the number of eighteen thousand effective men, landed without opposition. On the news of their arrival in the Chesapeake, Washington gave immediate orders for all the colonial troops to join him without delay; and advanced by rapid marches, to check the progress of Howe. His exertions, however, for that purpose, were not effectual; and it was perceived, that a battle, which would decide the fate of the American capital, was unavoidable. The royal army had pushed forward towards the Brandywine, on the opposite side of which the provincials were stationed; the river was fordable, and could therefore present no effective obstacle to a general engagement. This was ardently sought by the English commander; and, in his present circumstances, it was not avoided by Washington. On the morning of the 11th of September, the king's troops advanced towards Chadd's Ford; various manœuvres and skirmishing there took place, and with varied success; till about four in the evening, when the action began between the main strength of the contending forces. The right wing of the Americans was thrown into confusion at the very commencement of the attack; and, before Washington could lead his battalions to its support, the whole line gave way; the rout became general, and night alone saved the provincials from a total defeat.

This victory, on the part of the British, opened their way to Philadelphia. Accordingly, a short time after it was gained, Sir William Howe took possession of that city; but the troops, during their march, were incessantly annoyed by Washington; who hung upon their rear, cut off their detached parties, and showed them, that though he had been compelled to retreat, he was not overcome. In the whole conduct of this extraordinary man, we are forced to admire the prudence, perseverance, and activity which marked his character. He had been repulsed in almost every attack where a large body of the provincials had



BATTLE OF GERMANTOWN.

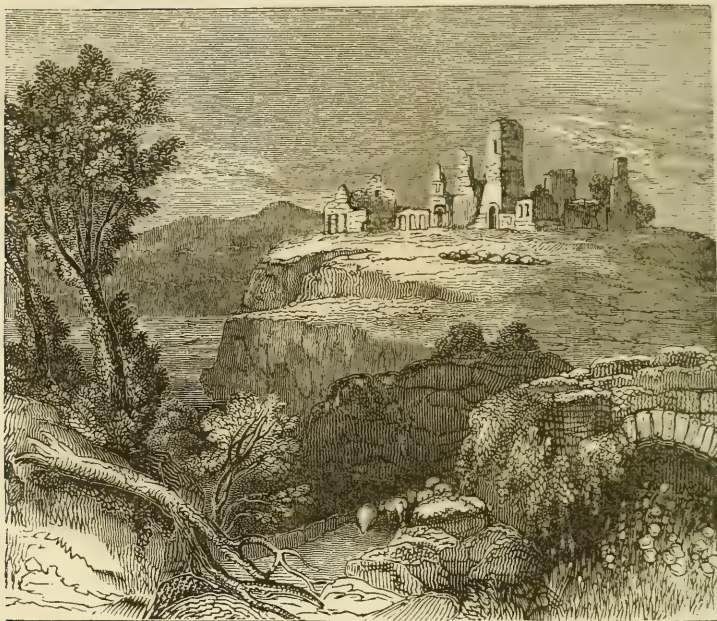
been engaged with the enemy ; his troops had deserted him in great numbers, and on the most important occasions ; and he had frequently been distressed by the want of military stores ; yet, notwithstanding these adverse circumstances, he made head against an army of regular troops, commanded by a general of acknowledged ability, well disciplined, and provided with all the means of successful warfare. No sooner had the English general taken possession of Philadelphia with a part of his forces, and stationed the rest at Germantown, than Washington formed the resolution of attacking the division at the latter place. In this attempt also he was unfortunate ; the British had early notice of his approach ; and he was obliged to retire with very considerable loss. But such was his unconquerable spirit, and so firm his conviction that the measures which he pursued would at length bring the war to a favourable issue, that, in his letters to the congress, he exhorted them to perseverance ; and rejected every offer towards an accommodation, but that which acknowledged the independence of the United States. The English general, now in possession of Philadelphia, employed himself for some time in taking or destroying the forts on the Delaware. The principal of these were Mud Island and Red-bank. Aided by three ships of the line, and well supported by



BATTLE OF REDBANK.

the officers who executed his commands, he, after a sturdy resistance from the garrison at Redbank, at length succeeded in reducing the forts; and many of the ships belonging to the provincials either fell into his hands, or were driven ashore and burnt by their possessors.

In the northern provinces, the campaign wore an aspect less friendly to the royal interests. An expedition to New England had been projected by the ministry in Europe, as the most effectual scheme for reducing the colonies to obedience. An army of seven thousand chosen troops had been put under the orders of General Burgoyne: these were to be assisted by levies from Quebec; and means were used to engage the Indians of Canada in the service of Great Britain. The first attempts of Burgoyne were as successful as the condition of his army entitled the ministry to expect. The Indians, gained by presents, or stimulated by the hope of plunder, joined him in considerable bodies; and to the honour of the British commander, we must add, that, in his first address to those new allies, he exhorted them to kill none but such as appeared in arms against them, and to spare the women and children whom



RUINS OF FORT TICONDEROGA.

the fortune of war might put into their hands. On the 2d of July, the English army encamped on both sides of Lake Champlain, at a short distance from Ticonderoga. To this strong fortress the Americans had retired at the end of the preceding year; and now it was garrisoned with about three thousand men, and defended by the provincial general St. Clair. The approaches of the British were rapid and decisive. Soon after their appearance before the American works, they took possession of Sugar-hill; an eminence which overlooked the fortifications, and enabled them to place their batteries to great advantage, but which the enemy had imagined it was impossible to ascend. On the 5th, every step had been taken in order to render the investment complete. St. Clair, however, conscious of his inability to defend the place, and anxious at the same time to prevent the troops which he commanded from surrendering themselves prisoners of war, abandoned the works, and retreated over Mount Independence to Charlestown, and thence to Skeensborough, in the vicinity of Lake George. Previous



GENERAL ST. CLAIR.

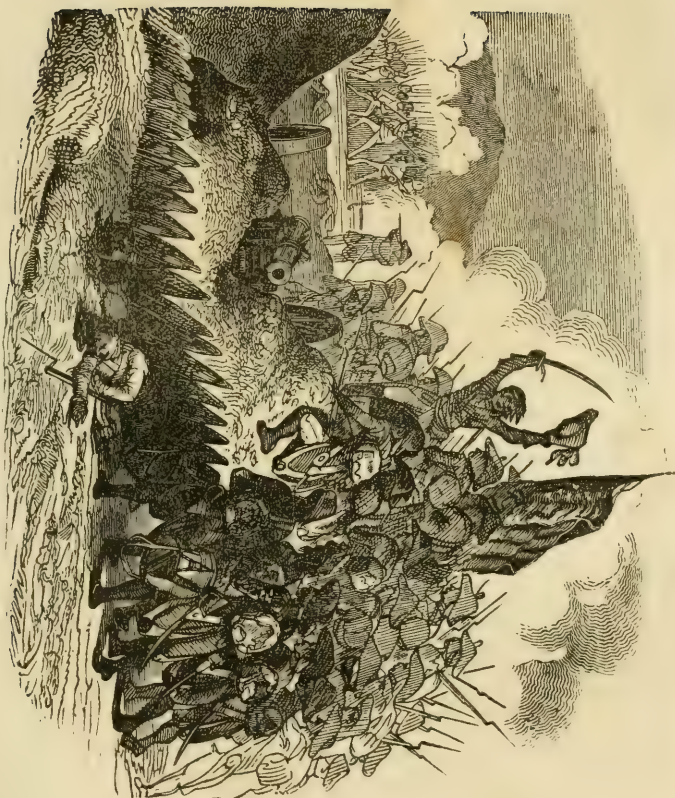
to his departure, he had ordered the baggage and military stores to be sent by water to the same place; but the vessels which were employed for that purpose were attacked by the English ships, and either captured or rendered unfit for service; and, in consequence of this disaster, the Americans set fire to their boats and fortifications at Skeensborough. On land the royalists were equally successful; Colonel Francis and a body of the provincial troops were defeated with great slaughter by General Reidesel; and, by the skilful manœuvres of Burgoyne, St. Clair was prevented from reaching Fort Anne. An engagement then took place in the woods, in which the Americans were routed, and compelled to retire to Fort Edward on the Hudson.

The loss of Ticonderoga was one for which the United States were not prepared, and which was severely felt through all the colonies. Neither the strength of the invading army nor the weakness of the garrison appears to have been understood. It was universally believed, that the whole force of Canada did not amount to six thousand men; and, therefore, no adequate measures had been taken, in order to enable St. Clair and the troops under his command to resist such an army as advanced against them.



GENERAL STARKE.

Burgoyne, elated with his success, and hitherto uninstructed by adverse fortune, proceeded with great ostentation of zeal and activity to finish the campaign. After waiting at Skeensborough for the arrival of tents and provisions, and spending a long time in clearing the ground, in order to facilitate the passage of his troops, he reached Fort Edward about the end of July. In the interval afforded by this delay, General Schuyler recruited the shattered battalions of the Americans, and, uniting the parties which were stationed in different quarters, convinced the British that much was still to be done. The royal army now suffered greatly from the want of provisions. They had attempted to seize the magazines at Bennington; but the detachments under Colonels Baum and Breyman, who were employed for that purpose, were utterly defeated by General Starke, to whom the defence of the place was intrusted. The



BATTLE OF BENNINGTON.



expedition on the Mohawk river, undertaken by Colonel St. Leger, had likewise failed. Notwithstanding these misfortunes, however, Burgoyne, fatally for the cause in which he was engaged, continued to advance; and having collected with great care and indefatigable exertion provisions for thirty days, he encamped on the heights and plains of Saratoga, resolved to decide by one vigorous effort the fortune of the campaign. On the 17th of September, the English army was only four miles distant from that of the provincials, commanded by General Gates. This officer, leaving his camp in the islands, had been joined by all the troops destined for the northern provinces, and, marching towards Stillwater with the utmost despatch, showed no inclination to avoid an engagement. Accordingly, when the British appeared, without waiting for the assault, he attacked their centre, while Arnold, who commanded on the left of the provincials, made head against the right of the enemy. A fierce encounter then ensued; and, had not the artillery arrived during the hottest of the action and checked the Americans, the discipline of the British must have yielded to the valour and impetuosity of the colonial troops. In this battle, the royalists lost only three hundred men, while fifteen hundred of their antagonists were either killed or wounded; yet the English generals were astonished at the resolution which the Americans had displayed, and began to anticipate, with sorrow, the final issue of their exertions.

The condition of the army under Burgoyne was now almost desperate. Their stock of provisions was nearly exhausted; the Indians, their allies, who had marked the service with bloodshed and cruelty, withdrew from them in great numbers, and, to complete the mortifications of the general, he had received no intelligence from Clinton, whose assistance or co-operation he had long expected. After some days, however, a letter from that officer arrived, informing Burgoyne that he intended to make a diversion in his favour; but, as this aid was distant and dubious, the communication of the design had little effect in raising the spirits of the soldiers, or animating their general with confidence.

In their present distressful circumstances, it was obvious that nothing but a victory could save the royalists from the ignominy of surrendering at discretion. Accordingly, on the 7th



GENERAL GATES.

of October, the English general moved with his whole strength towards the camp of the provincials. His design was quickly perceived by Gates, the American commander, who resolved to attack him without loss of time. The assault was impetuous and bloody; but the English, resisting for a while, at last gave way, and Fraser, one of their ablest generals, was killed on the spot. Arnold pressed hard on the right, where Burgoyne commanded in person; and though the king's troops in that quarter displayed their wonted courage, the British were compelled to retreat, and, with the utmost difficulty, regained their camp. They were pursued to their intrenchments by Arnold and furiously assaulted; but that officer having received a dangerous wound at the very moment when his division was entering the lines, the Americans were forced to retire. On the left, the provincials were still more successful. The Germans were routed with great loss; Colonel Breyman fell, and all the



BURGOYNE'S ENCAMPMENT ON THE HUDSON.

artillery and baggage remained in the hands of the colonial army.

This was the most fatal disaster which the English had experienced since the attack at Bunker's Hill. The number of killed and wounded, both of the Germans and British, was very great; but the chief misfortune was, that the Americans were now enabled so to arrange their posts as to enclose the army and effectually to prevent their escape. There was only one road by which it was possible for them to retreat. It was, therefore, resolved to repair the bridges on the way to Fort Edward; to decamp suddenly and march towards that place in the night, and, forcing the passages of the Hudson, to effect a union with Sir Henry Clinton and the troops under his command. It was resolved also that the baggage should be left, and that the soldiers should carry their provisions attached to their knapsacks. All these resolutions indicate the extreme necessity to which the British were reduced. The design, however was found to be impracticable. Intelligence was received



BURGOYNE'S RETREAT ON THE HUDSON.

that the Americans had erected strong batteries at the fords; that they had taken possession of an eminence between Fort Edward and Fort George, from which, it was said, they could annoy the army on their march; that their numbers were daily increasing; and that the fresh troops, as well as their associates, were animated with all the zeal of men ardent in the cause of freedom and their country. The state of the royal army and of its general was now truly deplorable. Burgoyne himself had projected the expedition. An officer of tried abilities had been removed to make way for him; and at the beginning of the campaign, his endeavours had been followed with success. But a mournful reverse of circumstances had taken place; he was deserted by his allies; his provisions were exhausted; he was enclosed by an enemy rejoicing in his misfortunes and anticipating his fall. "In these circumstances," says he in a letter to Lord George Germain, "I called a council of all the generals, field-officers, and captains commanding corps, and, by their unanimous concurrence and advice, I was induced to open a treaty with Major-general Gates." In con-



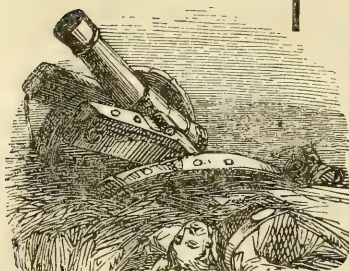
GENERAL BURGoyNE.

sequence of this treaty, the British forces, to the number of six thousand men, laid down their arms, having pledged themselves not to serve in America during the war, and stipulated that they should be permitted to return to their native country. Such was the agreement, and to this agreement the congress ought unquestionably to have adhered; but when the transports appeared in the harbour of Boston, and the troops were preparing to embark, the American rulers, suspecting that they might be employed against their interests in other parts of the continent, would not permit them to remove till the treaty should be ratified by the English cabinet. The surrender of Burgoyne led to the immediate evacuation of Ticonderoga and Mount Independence; and the provincials saw themselves once more sole masters of the north.



GENERAL HENRY LEE.

CAMPAIGNS OF 1778 AND 1789.



THE congress, however, not satisfied with the exertions of the provinces in behalf of their rights, had recourse to the aid of foreign powers. In the beginning of the year 1778, they entered into an alliance with the French, who, as the rivals of the British, and smarting with the loss of their possessions in Canada, eagerly embraced the proposals of the American states. On the 6th of February, the articles of agreement between the two nations were formally signed. It was declared in these articles, 1. That the principal end of the treaty was to support, in an effectual manner, the independency of the united colonies; 2. That if Great Britain should, in consequence of the treaty, proceed to hostilities against France, the two nations would assist each other as

circumstances might require ; 3. That if those places in North America, still subject to the British crown, should be conquered by the United States, they should either be confederated with them or subjected to their jurisdiction ; 4. That if any of the islands in the West Indies should be taken by the French, they should be considered as the property of that nation ; 5. That no formal treaty with Great Britain should be concluded by the French or Americans, acting separately, and that both parties would continue in arms till the independence of the United States should be acknowledged ; 6. That such powers of Europe or America as had received injuries from Great Britain should be invited to engage in the common cause ; 7. That the United States guarantied to France all the possessions in the West Indies which she might be able to conquer ; and that France, in her turn, guarantied the unconditional independence of the United States, and their supreme authority over every country which they possessed, or which they might acquire during the continuance of the war.

When this treaty was notified to the court of London, it produced an immediate declaration of war against the French. The English parliament, in their address to the king, expressed their resolution of adhering to him in all his endeavours to subdue the revolted colonies, and promised to assist him with the whole strength of the empire. The address, however, was not voted without a considerable difference of opinion. The members in opposition loudly affirmed that the war was equally tyrannical and unjust ; that the ministry, by their ignorance and ill success, had forfeited the confidence of the British nation ; that the Americans were struggling for independence, and would at last attain it ; and that every attempt to compel them to obedience would assuredly be fruitless. Of the injustice of the war, from its commencement to the present time, the ministry themselves, by their wavering and indecisive measures, appear to have been conscious. They now introduced into parliament a bill for reconciling the differences between the Americans and Great Britain ; and should the terms which they offered be rejected by the United States, they declared their fixed and unalterable purpose of reducing them to compliance by force of arms. Commissioners were therefore despatched to the congress, in order to communicate to them the

proposals of the English administration ; but, as they arrived immediately after the surrender of Burgoyne and the conclusion of the treaty with France, they were received with the utmost indifference, and, in many places, with the utmost contempt. The general answer was, that the day of reconciliation was past, and that Great Britain, by her tyranny and haughtiness, had extinguished all filial regard in the breasts of the American people. The congress resolved without delay, that, as a political body, they would not receive the commissioners till their independence was acknowledged ; that whoever made a separate agreement with Britain was an enemy to his country ; and that it was the duty of all the states to exert themselves to the utmost in recruiting the army, or in adding to the number of its battalions.

In the mean time, the season for action was approaching. While the congress was yet deliberating on the answer which they should give to the proposals from England, Sir Henry Clinton, now raised to the chief command, evacuated Philadelphia. On his march from that place, he was followed and harassed by the provincial troops, whom Washington had directed to obstruct his progress ; but Lee, the American general, having failed in an attempt to seize the baggage of the royalists, they effected their retreat, were conveyed on board the ships, and joined their countrymen at New York. For his misconduct on this occasion, as well as his insolence towards the commander-in-chief, Lee was afterwards tried by a court-martial, and sentenced to a temporary suspension from his office as a general in the army—a punishment which, though slight, operated with a powerful effect throughout the colonial forces.

While the British ships were employed in transporting the troops from Sandy Hook to New York, intelligence was received that a strong fleet, under the orders of Count D'Estaing, had arrived from France. It consisted of twelve ships of the line, besides frigates, and had six thousand marines, or soldiers, on board. To oppose this force, the British had only six ships of the line—three of fifty guns, and a few vessels of smaller size ; yet they posted themselves so advantageously before the entrance into New York, that the French admiral thought it would be hazardous to attack them, and prudently declined an engagement. The arrival of foreign succours was the occasion



COUNT D'ESTAIGN.

of much joy to the inhabitants of the United States. The congress immediately wrote to Washington, instructing him to co-operate with D'Estaign, and authorizing him to employ the militia from New Hampshire to New Jersey, as well as the militia of these provinces, for whatever undertakings he might judge to be necessary. But the success of the allied powers was not equal to the magnitude of their preparations. An expedition was agreed on, and Sullivan, the American general, landed on Rhode Island with ten thousand men, resolved to lay siege to Newport, the capital of that state. But Pigot, to whom Sir Henry Clinton had intrusted the defence of the place,



GENERAL SULLIVAN.

had fortified himself so strongly that the Americans found it impossible to succeed without the aid of the fleet. D'Estaing, however, shattered by a storm, and dreading the approach of the English admiral, withdrew from the harbour and sailed for Boston, in order to refit. In consequence of his departure, Sullivan was obliged to retire, and, the garrison of Newport rushing forth and pressing hard upon him, the provincial troops were thrown into confusion, and with no little difficulty accomplished their retreat. The conduct of D'Estaing at Rhode Island gave the highest offence to the people of New England, who did not hesitate to express their doubts of the admiral's courage. It produced a quarrel between him and Sullivan, which Washington long attempted to heal; and the resentment occasioned by these differences, in the minds of the French, contributed greatly to diminish their exertions in behalf of the colonies.

The war was now prosecuted with varied success. The whole province of Georgia was reduced by the English. Carolina was invaded, and Charleston, its principal city, had nearly fallen into the hands of the royalists. Several expeditions



GENERAL SCHUYLER.

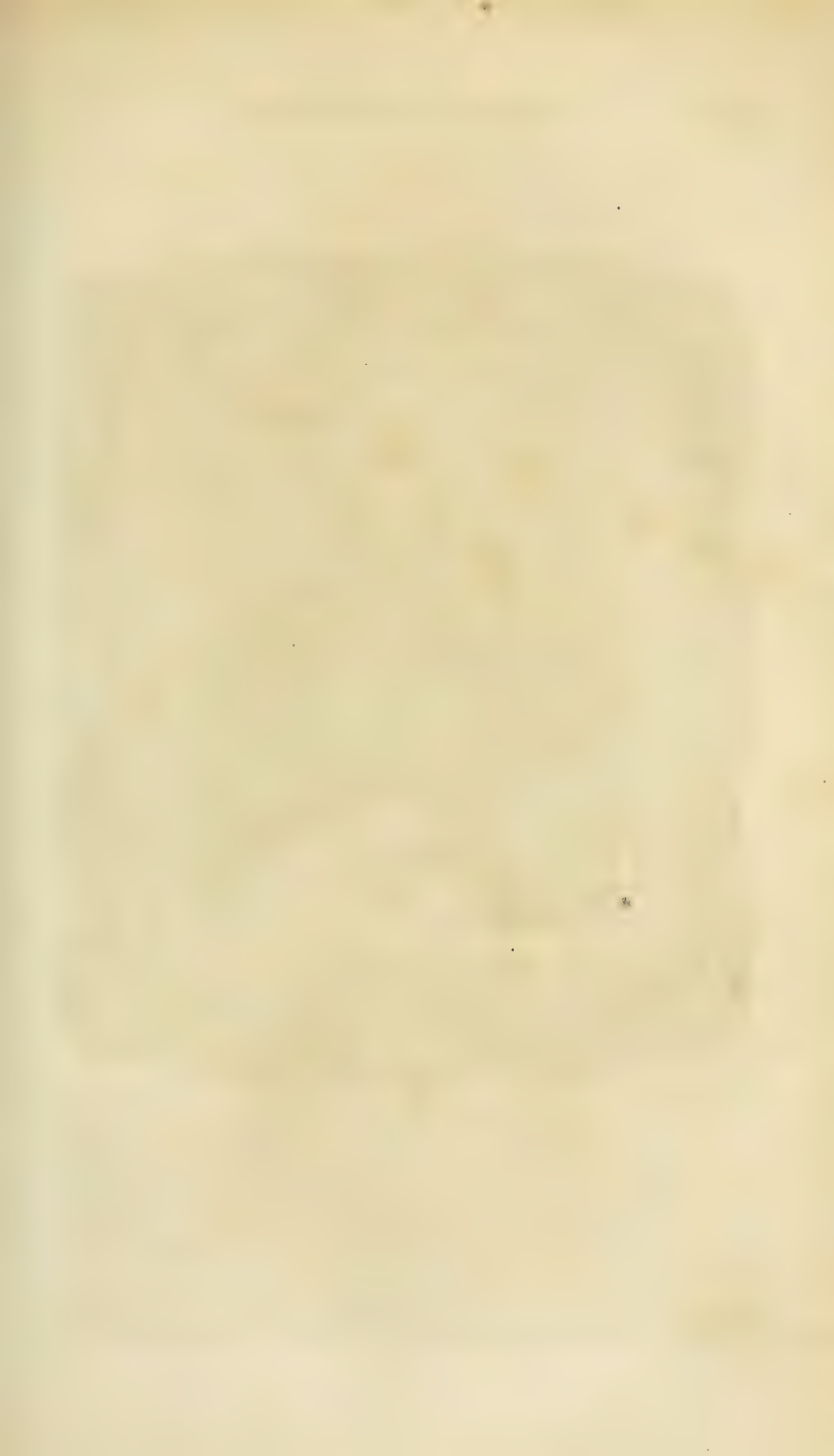
against the provinces in North America were likewise successful. On the other hand, the Spaniards, joining in the confederacy against Britain, made an irruption into Florida, and took possession of that country without opposition. Not a few of the states of Europe contemplated the exertions of the Americans with a favourable eye. And the Indians who, at the instigation of the British, had molested the provinces by continual depredations, were effectually and completely subdued by General Sullivan; their villages were burnt, and their plantations destroyed; so that when the invading army had quitted the district occupied by the savages, "there was not a house, nor a field of corn, nor a fruit tree left upon the ground;" nor was there an Indian to be seen throughout the whole tract.

During the whole of the American war, there appears to have been one capital and fatal error on the part of the British generals. They never collected their forces and advanced against the Americans with their whole strength, a mode of conduct which would have brought the war to a point, and enabled their discipline and skill to operate with decisive and awful

execution against the rude valour of the provincial troops. On the contrary, they divided their forces into small bodies; invaded the colonies in separate detachments; gave the Americans every opportunity of harassing them and cutting off their supplies, and were finally constrained to yield to the perseverance and boldness of men inferior to them in military knowledge, and almost destitute of those advantages which influence the success of military operations. This error of the British commanders was perceived by Washington, and he availed himself of it. "From your accounts," says he to Schuyler, in a letter written after the fall of Ticonderoga, "General Burgoyne appears to be pursuing that line of conduct which, of all others, is most favourable to us. I mean, acting in detachment. This conduct will certainly give room for enterprise on our side, and expose his parties to great hazard. Could we be so happy as to cut one of them off, though it should not exceed four, five, or six hundred men, it would inspirit the people and do away much of their anxiety."—*Marshall's Life of Washington*, vol. iii. p. 262.



GENERAL MARION.



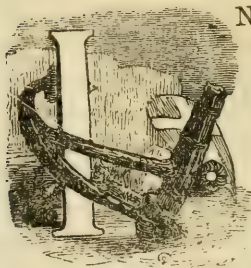


GENERAL LINCOLN.



GENERAL GREENE.

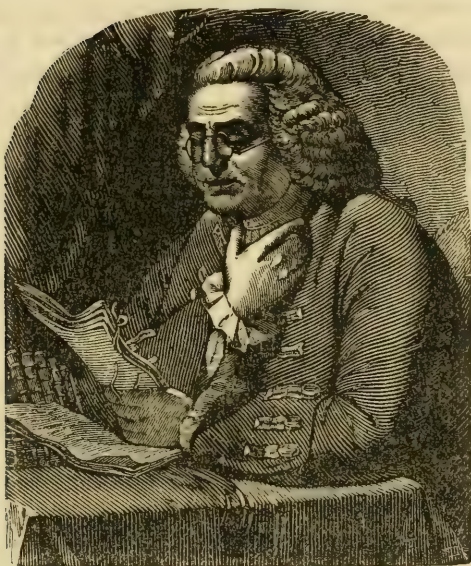
CAMPAIGNS OF 1780 AND 1781, AND CLOSE OF THE WAR.



IN the year 1780, the war was effectually transferred to the southern provinces. On the 19th of February, Sir Henry Clinton, who, in conjunction with Vice-admiral Arbuthnot, had left New York some time before, appeared off Charleston; on the 20th of March, the English squadron entered the harbour of that city; and on the 29th of the same month, the troops effected a landing at Charleston Neck. The British then summoned the town; but Lincoln, who commanded there, under the

authority of the United States, expressed his resolution of defending the place. In framing his answer to the summons of the English general, he was influenced considerably by the expectation of reinforcements and supplies from the neighbouring provinces; these, however, came in very slowly; and a body of militia which was proceeding to his relief was attacked and dispersed by Earl Cornwallis and Colonel Tarleton. The city was now invested in every direction; Fort Sullivan was in possession of the royalists; and the preparations for a general assault were nearly completed; when Lincoln, disappointed in the hope of obtaining succour from without, and indifferently supported by the troops under his command, agreed to the proposals of Clinton, and allowed the English, under General Leslie, to march into the place. The loss of Charleston was a severe blow to the American interests; twenty-four hundred and eighty-seven men were taken prisoners, besides a thousand sailors in arms; and the quantity of ordnance and military stores which fell into the hands of the king's troops was not only great, but, in the present state of the colonial affairs, could with difficulty be spared. Such, however, was the disposition of the provinces, and such the aversion to the English which the Americans had long cherished in their breasts, that, instead of being dispirited by their misfortunes, they united with greater cordiality and firmness, and prompted each other to more vigorous exertions. It is true, that, after the surrender of Charleston, the English general issued a proclamation in which he exhorted the people to return to their allegiance, and threatened them with the utmost severity of punishment if they refused to comply; and that some individuals were found who petitioned to be admitted into the number and restored to the condition of British subjects. But these were regarded by the majority of their countrymen as the slaves of tyranny, and looked upon as unworthy to be enrolled under the same banner, or to fight in the same cause, with the champions of freedom.

Amidst the ravages and desolation of war, the congress were not inattentive to the arts of peace. A committee of their number was instructed to examine the ground, as yet unoccupied, in the city of Philadelphia, and to choose a place for a building where the representatives of the American people



DR. FRANKLIN.

might assemble in a manner suitable to their dignity. They determined to erect a statue in honour of General Montgomery, who had fallen at Quebec, and authorized Dr. Franklin to agree with an artist of Paris for that purpose; they established a court in which all appeals from the admiralty to the United States, relating to captures, might be heard; they reformed the currency, and arranged their finances, so that the army might be regularly supplied with pay and clothing, and furnished with every thing which the general might require. They celebrated the 4th of July, the anniversary of their independence, with great pomp; and, on the same day, the first degrees in the arts were conferred by the provost and masters belonging to the college at Philadelphia. On this occasion, the members of congress, the chevalier de la Luzerne, minister plenipotentiary from the French king to the United States, together with other persons of distinction, were present.

Not long after these transactions, a second fleet arrived at Rhode Island from France. This fleet, consisting of seven ships of the line, was under the orders of M. Ternay, and had on board six thousand men, well appointed and disciplined, and

led by Rochambeau, an officer of great talents and experience. As the aid which the Americans had now received was both unexpected and considerable, the joy which it occasioned was very great. The assembly at Rhode Island went in a body to congratulate the French general on his arrival, and he, in return, assured them that the troops which he commanded were only the first division of a larger force, which the king, his master, would send to their assistance. No sooner was it communicated to the British that the provincials had been strengthened by aid from Europe, than they formed a scheme in order to render it ineffectual. It was agreed by Sir Henry Clinton and the English admiral to make an attack by sea and land on the French vessels and the allied troops at Rhode Island. But Washington, having received intelligence of the design, passed the North River with an army of twelve thousand men, and, advancing by a rapid movement to Kingsbridge, threatened with a siege the town of New York, where Clinton commanded in person. This judicious and timely movement produced the desired effect. The English general immediately altered his plan, and ordered his troops to disembark; in consequence of which, the Americans likewise withdrew from Kingsbridge, and returned, by slow marches, to their former station. They were soon after followed by General Knyphausen, who attempted to surprise and cut off their advanced posts. In this, however, he was unsuccessful, and, having set fire to Springfield, and wasted the neighbouring country, he joined the main army at New York.

About this time, General Gates, who had already distinguished himself in the contest with Burgoyne, was appointed to the chief command of the provincial forces in South Carolina. He was opposed by the Earl Cornwallis and Colonel Tarleton, officers of high name and respectability, whose services, in the reduction of Charleston, we have already mentioned. On the 16th of August, an action took place near Camden, between the royal army and that of the Americans. Prior to this action, the situation of the king's troops was exceedingly critical. The position at Camden, though advantageous in some respects, was not well chosen for sustaining an attack. The force under Cornwallis did not exceed two thousand, while that of the provincials was more than double that



BATTLE OF CAMDEN.

number. The consequence of a defeat might be the loss of South Carolina, and the effect of a victory the complete establishment of the royal authority in that extensive province. General Gates was advancing with rapidity, and intelligence was received that it was the design of that commander to attack the British lines.

In these circumstances, the skill and resolution of Cornwallis, and the decisive bravery of Lord Rawdon, (afterward Earl Moira,) not only saved the English from defeat, but enabled them to gain a signal victory over the provincial troops. On the evening of the 15th, the British general, having resolved not to wait for the approach of the Americans, led out his small but determined band, in order to attack them; and nearly at the same moment Gates advanced towards Camden with a similar intention. The two armies met in a narrow place, where the colonial troops could not avail themselves of their superior numbers. The English, perceiving the advantage which the ground afforded them, began the assault, and in a short time the action became general and warm. The onset of the royal-



BARON DE KALB.

ists, who advanced with their bayonets fixed, was irresistibly impetuous; the provincial militia, lately raised and strangers to regular service, first gave way, and the continental battalions, influenced by their example, yielded on all sides, and fled in the utmost disorder. Many of the colonists fell in this engagement, and more in the pursuit; one thousand men were taken prisoners, and seven pieces of cannon, together with all the ammunition and stores of the provincial army, remained in the hands of the English. While the action was at the hottest, the baron de Kalb, a Prussian officer in the American service, distinguished himself by the heroic valour with which he fought; he maintained his position against a furious assault of the enemy, and charged them at the head of the battalion which

he commanded, till, overpowered by the English horse and wounded in eleven parts of his body, he gave his sword to a British officer who was near him, and resigned himself a prisoner of war. From the royalists he received every attention which it was in their power to bestow; but his wounds were mortal, and in a few hours he expired. The last moments of this gallant soldier were spent in acknowledging the kindness of the English, and in declaring his unqualified approbation of the officers and men who had fought under his orders or fallen by his side. And the congress afterwards ordered a monument to be erected to his memory, in testimony of their sense of his worth, and their gratitude for his services.

But, while the Americans were doomed to suffer by the power of their enemies, their misfortunes were nearly completed by the treachery of their friends. Arnold, a leading man in Philadelphia, governor of that city in the name of the United States, and a general of conspicuous abilities, was induced to quit the service of his country and attach himself to the royal cause. Different motives have been assigned for this inglorious conduct. It has been said that he was unfriendly to the declaration of independence, and disgusted at the alliance with France; and it has been urged, with greater plausibility, that the origin of his treachery is to be looked for in the fickleness of his temper and the unfortunate issue of the speculations in which he engaged. He had been accused by the government at Philadelphia for the appropriation of goods belonging to the public to his own use; and had been tried for certain actions, which, though not declared to be highly blamable, or injurious to the state, were, nevertheless, of a very suspicious nature. Those who have written of the American war have not informed us whether any attempts were made to corrupt his fidelity, or whether, by a proposal originating with himself, he betrayed the cause of freedom and the interests of his country. It is certain, however, that he had frequent interviews with Major Andrè on board the *Vulture*, in North River; and, when that officer was taken in the disguise of a peasant, several documents of a public nature, in the handwriting of Arnold, as well as a plan of the fortifications at West Point, where the traitor commanded, were found in his possession. From the documents alluded to, it is probable that the designs



MAJOR ANDRÉ.

of the American general were of an extensive nature, and that he meditated the scheme of reannexing the colonies to the British empire. But, whether his designs were limited or extensive, they were all frustrated by the apprehension of Major André. This unfortunate gentleman, equally remarkable for the amiableness of his disposition and his attainments in classical learning, was accidentally prevented from reaching the king's troops by means of the vessel which had conveyed him to the shore, and was discovered and seized on his way to New York. His case was referred by the commander-in-chief to a board of officers, consisting of General Greene, Lord Stirling, the marquis de la Fayette, Baron Steuben, two major-generals, and eight brigadiers. Before these distinguished persons, it was ascertained that he had often come on shore during the night, and conversed in a secret manner with General Arnold; that he changed his dress within the American lines, and, under a fictitious name and a disguised habit, had passed the American works at Stony and Verplank's Points; that he was taken on the 23d of September by three American soldiers, Paulding, Vanvert, and Williams, when hastening to join the British; and that certain papers, containing intelligence for the enemy,



CAPTURE OF MAJOR ANDRE.

were found in his boots. It was therefore determined by the court that he should be considered as a spy from the royal army, and that, in conformity with the law of nations and the practice of European countries, he ought to suffer death. In vain did Sir Henry Clinton, and Arnold himself, write to General Washington and petition that his life might be spared. The provincials, galled by their late distresses, were inexorable, and Andrè was hanged, on the 2d of October, at Tappan, in the division of New York. He met his fate with courage and composure; but regretted that the usages of war would not permit him to terminate his days in a more honourable manner, and to die, not as a criminal, but as a soldier.

But, as his example was imitated by few of his countrymen, the defection of Arnold was of no great and permanent advantage to the royal cause. The affairs of the British in the southern provinces at length began to decline. The king's troops had made an ineffectual attempt to possess themselves of North Carolina; Tarleton was defeated with considerable loss; and though Greene, the American general, at the head of a powerful division, was twice constrained to yield to the abilities of Cornwallis and the valour of Rawdon, the provincials quickly recovered their ground, repulsed the enemy in their turn, and seemed every day to increase in numbers, and to improve in



ARNOLD.

discipline. The royalists were often in great distress from the want of provisions, and, on many occasions, were totally destitute of bread. No succours had arrived from Sir Henry Clinton, the commander-in-chief. That general, opposed by Washington, and deceived by the artifices of the American leader, was in daily apprehension of an attack upon New York, and unable to afford the least assistance to the army in Carolina. In consequence of an action which took place between the French and British fleets, the allies became masters of the Chesapeake. Washington, informed of the condition to which the English were reduced, took every method in his power in order to compel them to surrender. With this view, he quitted his station in the vicinity of New York, and, accompanied by the marquis de Lafayette and the count de Rochambeau, proceeded to Williamsburg, in Virginia; where, putting himself at the head of the French and American troops, he advanced to Yorktown; and, after the disembarkation of the stores, laid siege to that place. The utmost alacrity prevailing among the allied forces, and the whole army exerting itself with unusual vigour, the lines were completed in a short time. The situation of Lord Cornwallis, and the British under his command, now became desperate. The works which they had raised had fallen before the artillery of Washington; their attempts to repel the be-



SURRENDER OF CORNWALLIS.

siegers, to stop their progress, and even to escape through the American lines, had all proved ineffectual; every day brought the provincials nearer to their object; and nothing at length remained, but to capitulate on the most honourable terms. Accordingly, on the 19th of October, 1781, the English general yielded to the necessity which pressed upon him, and surrendered himself and his whole army prisoners of war. The artillery, arms, and accoutrements belonging to the royalists, together with their military chest, and stores of every description, were given up to the Americans; and seven thousand men, the flower of the British troops, remained under the guard or escort of the continental battalions.

The success of the allies in the capture of Yorktown is chiefly to be ascribed to the skill and prudence of Washington. No little artifice was employed to impress Sir Henry Clinton with the belief that New York was in danger, and to keep that general in perpetual alarm; while, in these very circumstances, the American commander was forming his plans and collecting



YORKTOWN BATTLE GROUND.

his supplies, in order to march against Cornwallis in the south. The artifice alluded to was maintained with such ability, that Clinton did not once suspect the intentions of the provincial leader, and was effectually prevented from supporting the falling fortunes of his countrymen. The British general was not deficient in those qualities which lead to bold and adventurous exertions; but he was deceived by appearances, which induced him to think rather of defending the capital in his possession, than of diminishing his strength in order to secure more distant acquisitions. When the design of the Americans, however, was known, he made an effort; and, though it was late and inefficient, it showed his inclination, at least, to aid the operations in the southern countries. To the skill of the French engineers, likewise, the success of the allies should, in a great degree, be imputed: but, above all, it ought to be ascribed to the persevering patriotism of the colonists themselves, and that invincible hatred of oppression, which animated them in every struggle, and prompted them, after every defeat, to renewed endeavours in the cause of liberty.

The joy diffused throughout the United States by the sur

render of the army under Lord Cornwallis, was equal to the anxiety which it had occasioned. The people of America regarded the brilliant achievement of their commander, which put the allies in possession of Yorktown, as determining the issue of the contest; and from that moment they looked forward to the reward of all their toils, and a full compensation for all their sufferings. By the congress the intelligence was received with the highest satisfaction. They voted the thanks of the United States to Washington, to the count de Rochambeau, and to the officers and men of the southern army; they resolved, that a marble column should be erected at Yorktown, in Virginia, with emblems commemorative of the alliance between the United States and his most Christian majesty; they determined to go in full and solemn procession to the Dutch Lutheran church, and give thanks to Almighty God for the success of their general and the forces under his command; and they issued a proclamation, appointing the 13th of December as a day of thanksgiving and prayer on account of the signal interposition of Divine Providence which they had experienced.

But if the surrender of Cornwallis was the occasion of joy to the Americans, it was the occasion of much and serious concern to the British. The war, into which the English nation had at first entered with great alacrity, was now become universally unpopular. The Americans, having secured the alliance of the French, were more able than ever to resist the force of the British arms; and the spirit which had given rise to the defection of the colonies, so far from being subdued, continued to influence them in all their determinations. It was perceived, that the reduction of the provinces could not be accomplished without a great waste of blood and treasure; and perhaps the injustice of forcing the Americans to contribute to the support of a government which allowed them no place in its councils had at length become evident to the British people. But, from whatever cause it arose, it is certain, that a remarkable change had taken place in the sentiments of the English nation; and that a desire for peace was everywhere prevalent. Accordingly, on the 4th of March, 1782, it was resolved by the House of Commons, notwithstanding a violent opposition from the ministry, "that the house will consider as enemies to his majesty and the country, all those who advise or attempt a further prose-

cution of the offensive war on the continent of North America." A change of administration then took place. On the 5th of May, Sir Guy Carleton arrived at New York, and was joined with Admiral Digby in a commission to treat of peace with the people of America : on the 30th of November, the articles were signed at Paris ; and the colonies of New Hampshire, Massachusetts bay, Rhode Island and Providence plantations, Connecticut, New York, New Jersey, Pennsylvania, Delaware, Maryland, Virginia, North Carolina, South Carolina, and Georgia, were acknowledged to be "free, sovereign, and independent states." In this acknowledgment the French had already agreed, and their example was speedily followed by the other nations of Europe.

Thus ended the war between Great Britain and America ; a war which began in an injudicious and tyrannical endeavour to procure a revenue from the colonies, and which terminated in their freedom and sovereignty ; a war in which much blood was spilt, and many cruelties exercised ; and the issue of which will remain as a lesson to those who, unmindful of the rights of the people, would lift against them the arm of power, and force them to a compliance with their unjust demands.



SUMPTER.

COMMENCEMENT OF THE FIRST FRENCH REVOLUTION.



THE history of the Revolution exhibits to us France, during a period of forty years, under four principal phases, all strikingly different the one from the other. In the first of these, we see the struggle which the nation had to maintain against the court and the privileged orders—an awful and terrible struggle, which terminated by the triumph of the multitude and the fall of the throne. The second exhibits to us the scourge of foreign war,

accompanied by the still more fearful one of the rule of the populace, and of those violent and vicious men into whose hands a blind and uncalculating resistance had thrown the reins of power. This second is that bloody period during which France was a prey, first to the reign of terror, and then to that of anarchy—the period of the republic, up to the 18th Brumaire. In its third phase, the revolution shows the nation exhausted by a long succession of ills, worn out with its own excesses, and seeking, at the feet of the great captain, a refuge in military despotism. During this period, France seems transformed into one vast camp, and signalizes, during twelve years, by an uninterrupted succession of triumphs, her reaction against combined Europe. This is the period of the consulate and the empire. And finally, when the application of a portion of those principles in the name of which the revolution had been

effected, has received, from time, a sort of consecration—when men, long agitated by opposing views, have, at length, learned to live together, and in peace, beneath the iron hand of the conqueror, the latter falls, in his turn—the love of freedom reawakens in the hearts of Frenchmen, and the restoration is accomplished, under the condition that France shall be endowed with political liberty, and that the general interests involved in the new order of things which has arisen shall be respected. This period, during which France learns to exercise her political rights through a struggle of sixteen years for their defence, is the last phase of the revolution, and terminates in the great days of July, 1830, followed by the establishment of a new government, destined to commence with false promises, and, after becoming despotic and corrupt, to terminate in a new revolution in 1848.

If, at the outset of the reign of Louis XVI., the voices of such men as Turgot and Malesherbes—men alike distinguished for their patriotism and their wisdom—had been listened to, France would, in all probability, have entered at once upon the enjoyment of many of those advantages which she has since purchased at such a price of treasure, tears, and blood. But it is, alas! with nations as with individuals: their experience is ever dearly bought, and they have need of a painful probation ere they will consent to follow the counsels of wisdom. All parties in France refused to listen to any other voice than that of their own selfish passions, and all perished, in succession, the victims of their own furious excesses. During the bloody period of which we are now about to trace a rapid sketch, the French nation, by its saturnalia of crime, its marvellous victories, and its astonishing progress in population and in wealth, after a series of the most dreadful convulsions by which an empire was ever desolated, was an object, by turns, of horror, pity, admiration, and terror to the gazing universe.

It was on the 5th of May, 1789, that the states-general were to open, and the royal sitting, for this purpose, was accordingly held in the *Salle des Menus*, at Versailles. The deputies were summoned thither and introduced, according to the order established in 1614; but the time was gone by when the *tiers état*, speaking on their knees and bareheaded, acknowledged their degrading inferiority in the presence of the other

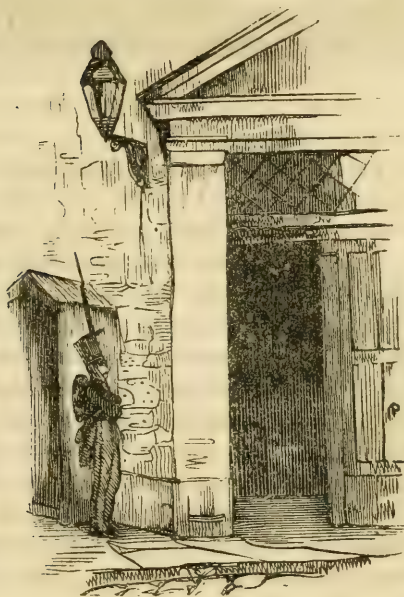
orders. They lost no time in showing that they considered themselves as the equals of the other two estates ; and when, following the example of the king, the deputies of the two higher orders covered their heads, those of the commons, contrary to the usage of the ancient states, immediately imitated the clergy and the nobles. That simple action alone might have sufficed to show the court that a revolution had been effected in mind and manners. The deputies of the commons, however, would have gained but little by proclaiming themselves the equals of the other orders, had they been unable to compel the recognition of that equality by basing it on facts. The first and most important question to be settled was, whether the votes should be taken individually or by orders. In the latter case, the deputies of the *tiers état* would lose the advantage which their number (double that of the deputies of each of the privileged orders) gave them. The court and the majority of the nobles and clergy attached the utmost importance to procuring a decision that the votes should be taken by orders on all political questions. But the nobles included among their members many popular dissentients. The curés, too, formed a considerable portion of the clerical deputies ; and their opinions inclined towards those of the deputies of the *tiers état*, to whom their unanimity of feeling and numerical force gave an immense advantage. These latter displayed, on the present occasion, immovable patience and unshaken firmness. They proceeded to the verification of their powers, after having invited the nobles and clergy to be present ; and, subsequently, by the advice of Sièyes, they constituted themselves, on the 17th of June, into a national assembly. This important resolution was immediately followed up by acts of supremacy. The assembly proclaimed the indivisibility of the legislative power, voted the provisional levy of taxes so long as they should be sitting, and their entire cessation in case they should be dissolved, consolidated the public debt, and appointed a committee of supply.

Alarmed at the vast ascendancy which these early acts of theirs gave to the national assembly over the public mind, the dominant party at court, opposed to Necker and led by the comte d'Artois and the princes de Condé and de Conti, communicated their alarms to Louis XVI., and prevailed on him to

interpose his power by annulling the decrees of the assembly, commanding the separation of the orders, and taking upon himself to prescribe all the reforms which should be undertaken by the states-general. For this purpose a royal sitting was announced, and, under pretext of the preparations requisite for that occasion, the hall of the states was in the mean time closed. Bailly, the chief deputy for Paris, presided at that time over the assembly, a man at once esteemed for his literary and scientific labours, and who had won the respect of all parties by his nobility and firmness of character. On the 20th of June, he presented himself, with a great number of his colleagues, at the door of the hall, and found it closed. The violent designs of the court were no longer doubtful, and the indignant deputies resolved to thwart their execution. They followed their president to the tennis-court, and there, with uplifted hands and hearts filled with the sense of what they owed to their country, swore, with the exception of a single one among them, never to separate till they had given a constitution to France. Two days afterwards, the majority of the clergy joined the deputies of the commons, in the church of Saint Louis, where the latter had assembled provisionally.

Such were the preludes to that royal session which was held on the 23d of June, and at which Necker excused himself from attending. The king appeared there in all the pomp of sovereignty, and was received with chilling silence. He refused to recognise the assembly but as that of the order of the *tiers état*, and commanded it immediately to dissolve. The members of the nobility and clergy who were present obeyed as soon as the king had departed; but the commons retained their seats. The grand-master of the ceremonies entered to remind them of the monarch's order. "Tell your master," replied Mirabeau, "that we are here by order of the people, and will be driven hence only by the bayonet." Then, Sièyes, addressing his colleagues, coolly said—"You are to-day what you were yesterday. Let us enter on our deliberations." The assembly persisted in all its resolutions, and, on the motion of Mirabeau, added one asserting the inviolability of its members. From that hour the royal authority was lost. The majority of the

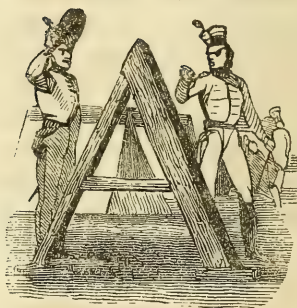
members of the clergy sat again in the assembly on its next meeting ; and, a few days afterwards, forty-seven members of the nobility, among whom was the duke of Orleans, joined it. Finally, after the 27th of June, the deliberations became general, and the distinction established between the orders ceased to exist.





CAPTURE OF THE BASTILLE.

CAPTURE OF THE BASTILLE.



LL moral authority having thus passed from the monarch to the assembly, the counsellors of Louis XVI. rashly persuaded him to have recourse to force. - Great numbers of troops were drawn together round Versailles; Necker was banished; and the maréchal de Broglie, La Galissonnière, the duc de la Vauguyon, the baron de Breteuil, and the intendant Foulon, all more or less imbued with the opinions of the court, were named to the ministry. The approach of the troops, and the exile of Necker, provoked a fermentation in Paris. Camille Desmoulins, a young man glowing with zeal in the cause of freedom, harangued the people in the Palais Royal, and summoned them to take up arms. The busts of Necker and the duke of Orleans were paraded through Paris. This sort of ovation was disturbed by the prince de Lambesc, colonel of the royal German corps, who charged the mob; but the French guards took part with the people,—the troops refused to fire on their companions in arms, and fell back. The tumult and disorder increased throughout the capital. The barriers

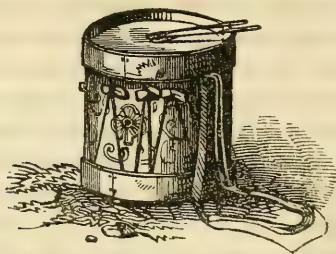
were set fire to, and many houses were pillaged by ruffians. The populace was without bread, and the greatest evils were to be apprehended. To prevent these, a body of electors assembled at the Hôtel de Ville, took the authority into their own hands, and rendered great service by their conduct, at once firm, active, and prudent. The national assembly, after having vainly attempted a reconciliation with the court, unanimously decreed the responsibility of ministers, and of all the counsellors of the king, of what rank soever they might be. A vote was passed, expressive of regret for Necker and the disgraced ministers,—the public debt was committed to the safe keeping of the national honour,—and the assembly declared itself permanent. The archbishop of Vienna presided over it, and La Fayette was elected vice-president.

The populace of Paris, inflamed by the hostile attitude of the court and the energetic proceedings of the assembly, determined to pursue its advantages, and demanded arms. The committee of electors, sitting at the Hôtel de Ville, organized the national guard, which they increased to forty-eight thousand men, giving them the tri-coloured cockade—its colours being those of the arms of the city of Paris. Each district had its battalion. Fifty thousand pikes were forged,—the arsenal of the Invalids was pillaged,—and the universal cry of the populace was, ‘To the Bastile!’ The memorable siege of that fortress was undertaken; and the French guards coming to the aid of the people, with cannon, decided its capture, the slender garrison laying down their arms. The governor Delaunay and several soldiers, unable to escape the fury of the multitude, were put to death; and the populace returned in triumph to the Hôtel de Ville, bearing the bloody trophies of their victory. A letter found on the unfortunate Delaunay involved M. de Flesselles, the mayor of Paris, in an accusation of treason. The first impulse of the populace was to massacre him; but they, subsequently, ordered that he should be arraigned before them. He was assassinated, however, by a pistol shot. The popular effervescence was at its height; Paris prepared herself for battle on the following day, and the entire city wore the aspect of one vast camp.

The court, however, was still blind enough to see in this movement of a whole metropolis no more than a mere riot. The

king proposed to dissolve the assembly, and had delegated to the commandant of the army, the maréchal de Broglie, unlimited powers. Informed, in the middle of the night, by the worthy La Rochefoucauld-Liancourt, of the taking of the Bastille and all the events of the 14th July,—‘This is an insurrection!’ said the king. ‘No sire,’ replied the great citizen, ‘it is a revolution.’ The king’s firmness gave way, before the gravity of the circumstances; and, on the day following, he appeared in the midst of the assembly. ‘The silence of the people is a lesson for kings,’ as Mirabeau had said; and the deputies preserved, at first, an attitude of gloomy attention, in the presence of the monarch. But when he had declared to them that *he and the nation were but as one*,—that the troops should be sent away,—and when he added, with a trembling voice, ‘Well, gentlemen, I place myself in your hands,’—the assembly broke forth into acclamations, and rising, conducted Louis XVI. back to his palace.

The king felt the necessity of doing something to appease the capital. He caused it to be announced that Necker should be recalled, and that he would, himself, repair on the following day to Paris, where Bailly had been appointed mayor, and La Fayette commandant of the burgher guard. The monarch was received by these two. ‘Sire,’ said the former, in presenting to him the keys of the city,—‘Henry IV. conquered back his people,—but here the people have conquered back their king.’ Louis entered the Hôtel de Ville without guards, received the tri-coloured cockade, amid the acclamations of the multitude, and returned to Versailles only after having confirmed the elections of the people, and sanctioned the new magistracies.



THE FIRST EMIGRATION.



T was at this period that the first emigration began. The comte d'Artois, the prince de Condé, the prince de Conti, and the Polignac family, set the example of quitting France. Necker's return to Paris was in the nature of a triumph; but with that event ended his career of fame. Believing himself the master of a party, who no longer looked on him as

more than an instrument, he endeavoured to save Bézenval, the second in command of the troops, and whom the people had made prisoner. Already, the intendant Foulon and his nephew Berthier had perished, victims of the popular resentment. Bézenval was more deeply compromised than either of these, and Necker, by proposing an amnesty, sacrificed his popularity at once. From that hour he commenced a fruitless struggle against the revolution. The metropolitan movement had extended itself into the provinces; and the people were, everywhere, organizing themselves into municipalities and national guards. Troops of armed men scoured the country, burning and pillaging the châteaux and destroying their title-deeds. To allay this irritation, it became important that its causes should be in some measure removed, by the abolition of the more odious privileges; and to this reform the assembly proceeded unshrinkingly, on the famous night of the 4th of August. The signal for sacrifices was given by the vicomte de Noailles, who proposed the redemption of feudal rights, and the suppression of personal servitude. There grew up among the privileged orders a rivalry in offerings, and apparently in patriotism. Many of these, however, contri-

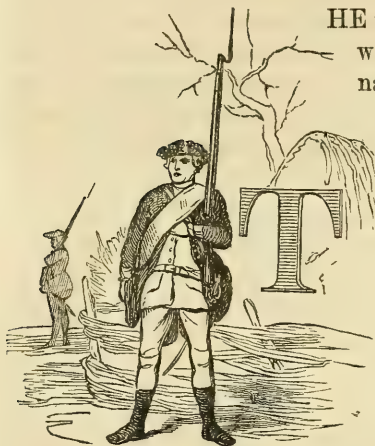
buted to the destruction of all things in the old social system, only in the hope that the universal overthrow must lead to a reaction as its inevitable consequence. Abuses and privileges were suppressed; and the assembly voted the redemption of tithes, and their conversion into a pecuniary tax,—the abolition of the exclusive right of chase and of seigniorial jurisdictions,—of the sale of magisterial offices,—of pecuniary immunities and inequality of taxation,—of the *annates* (first-fruits) of the court of Rome, and plurality of benefices; and the title of ‘Restorer of French liberty’ was bestowed upon Louis XVI. That memorable night led to the regulation of the public authorities and the gratuitous administration of justice. It gave to all Frenchmen equality of rights—all might, thenceforth, aspire to office, aim at becoming proprietors, and devote themselves to whatsoever branch of industry they might choose. In a word, all obstacles were, at once, cleared away, which still offered any opposition to the preparation of the new constitution.

The assembly was at this period divided into three leading parties:—first, that of the court and privileged classes, formed of the majority of the nobles and clergy, whose most remarkable orators were the abbé Maury and Cazalès, a cavalry officer;—secondly, that which desired a constitution after the model of the English,—composed principally of the minority among the nobles, and having at its head Necker, Meunier, and Lally Tolendal, the son of General Lally, and early celebrated for the conspicuous talent which he had displayed in clearing the memory of his father;—and thirdly, the remaining portion of the assembly formed the party called national, and which was hostile to every kind of aristocratic distinction between the different classes of the nation. The most influential members of this party were Bailly, Mirabeau, and La Fayette; by whose side, however, were, likewise, conspicuous the members of a celebrated triumvirate, at all times zealous supporters of the most popular propositions, formed of the counsellor Dupont, the originator of the famous confederation of clubs, colonel Alexander Lameth, and the eloquent Barnave. There was still a fourth party in the assembly—that of the duke of Orleans; but this latter was vague and ill-defined,—and, if it had a real existence, was composed of a small number of members personally attached to the prince, and supposed to entertain the design of

transferring the crown to his head. The principal leaders of the assembly were two men not belonging to the *tiers état*, but adopted by it—the abbé Sièyes and Mirabeau. Of these, the first swayed it by the influence of a powerful reason, and a mind at once philosophical and abounding in ideas both novel and profound;—he ruled in the committees. The second reigned in the tribune. Early delivered up to the guidance of his own stormy passions, the victim of his personal irregularities, and accustomed to the struggle with authority, devoured by a craving after action and movement proportioned to his own prodigal resources, audacious as he was eloquent, revolutions were his fitting element. Repulsed by the nobles of Provence, he flung himself into the arms of the people, by whom he was received with transport,—and exercised over the assembly the sovereignty of genius.



THE ROYAL FAMILY BROUGHT FROM VERSAILLES TO PARIS.



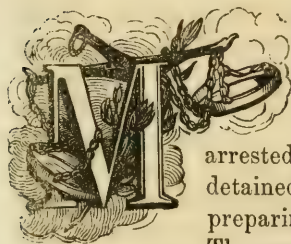
THE royal power, *de facto* suspended, was now replaced by that of the national assembly; which immediately proceeded to appoint committees charged with providing for every different branch of the public service. On the proposition of La Fayette, it then adopted a declaration of rights, framed in the spirit of the celebrated declaration of the American congress, and which served as the basis of their constitution.

This declaration Louis XVI. hesitated to accept, and gave his adhesion at length with great reluctance. The assembly next decreed the permanence of the legislative body; and after a very animated discussion, in which Necker, Mounier, and Lally-Tollendal argued for the division of that body into a senate and chamber of representatives, it was decided that it should continue indivisible, and be composed of a single chamber. The next step was to determine the action of the monarch in the constitution of the laws; and, here, while some contended that the king should have the power of absolute opposition to the decrees of the assembly, it was insisted by others that his *veto* should be merely suspensive. This question excited the most violent debates. Paris was still in a state of great agitation,—the natural result of the popular victory of the 14th of July. The assembly of electors, who had assumed the functions of a provisional municipality, had been recently replaced. One hundred and eighty members, named by the different districts, had constituted themselves legislators

and representatives of the whole body of citizens; while the committees of the sixty districts of Paris assumed to themselves, likewise, a legislative power superior to that of their constituents. The rage for public discussion had become general; and assemblies of every description were formed throughout the city. The soldiery, the journeymen tailors, the hair-dressers, the body of domestic servants, had each their special place of meeting. The most animated debates were carried on in the Palais Royal, whence the people controlled those of the national assembly. There it was that the discussion on the royal veto excited the most violent irritation. The middling class, of which the national guard was composed, had not yet, at Paris, got all power into its own hands; and the ministry, alarmed at the threatening demonstrations of the multitude, induced the king to abandon the unlimited veto, and confine himself to the suspensive one. The assembly then decreed that the refusal of the royal sanction should not be prolonged beyond two legislatures. It was not, however, without great difficulty that the court was prevailed on to give way; and projects of a far different character were still nourished there. The courtiers aimed at exhibiting Louis in the character of an oppressed monarch; and, having no hope but in a civil war, were desirous that he should take refuge in the midst of his army. Louis XVI. really loved his people, and withstood these violent suggestions. Troops were, however, collected round Versailles. Some dragoons and the regiment of Flanders were summoned thither, and the enemies of the revolution resumed courage. A feast was given to the officers of the newly-arrived regiments, by their comrades, in the *salle de spectacle* (theatre) of the château, which was usually reserved for great solemnities; and in the midst of this noisy assemblage suddenly appeared the king and queen, the latter carrying the dauphin in her arms. Their entrance was greeted with shouts of enthusiasm; white cockades were distributed, and the tri-coloured emblems trodden under foot. Such was the celebrated banquet of the 1st of October, whose results were destined to be so fatal to the royal family of France. The news of this scene soon spread throughout Paris, and produced the most violent fermentation. The arrival of the regiments, their hostile demonstrations, the apprehension of plots against the people, and, more than all, the existing

scarcity of provisions, combined to occasion a fearful outbreak of the popular passions. The signal was given, on the 5th of October, by a young girl, who traversed the streets, with a drum beating, and shouting, 'Bread—bread!' A crowd of women gathered round her, and the general cry was—'To Versailles!' Maillard, one of the volunteers of the Bastile, placed himself at the head of this motley assemblage, continually swelled by the coming in of a furious multitude, and offered to lead them thither. Kept in check for seven hours by La Fayette, they, however, at length set out, and reached Versailles, where their approach had already spread consternation. A first engagement had taken place between the populace and the *gardes du corps* ere La Fayette arrived, at the head of the national guard of Paris, to restrain the lawless rabble. His presence restored security, and tranquillity was re-established. In the dead of the night, however, some stragglers of the mob found one of the gratings of the château open, and, arousing their companions, entered the royal abode. The alarm was speedily given, and a struggle took place between the populace and the guards on duty,—many of whom fell heroically at their posts, exclaiming—'Save the queen!' Marie Antoinette, apprized of her danger, fled, half-dressed, into the apartment of the king. La Fayette flew to the scene of action, and found that the Paris guard had already taken part with the *gardes du corps*. He succeeded in clearing the castle of the mob, exposing his own life to drive back the rioters from the royal apartments. The multitude demanded, with loud cries, that the king should make his appearance, and that he should repair with his family to Paris. Louis XVI. showed himself to the shouting crowd, and promised to do as they required. But the queen it was who was the special object of the people's hatred, and La Fayette led her out on to the balcony, and kissed her hand, before them, with deep respect. Shouts of applause arose from the crowd, in answer. The departure for Paris was determined on; and the royal family repaired thither that same day, escorted by the guards, and accompanied by a hideous and bloody procession.

DEATH OF MIRABEAU—FLIGHT OF THE KING—DISSOLUTION OF THE NATIONAL ASSEMBLY.



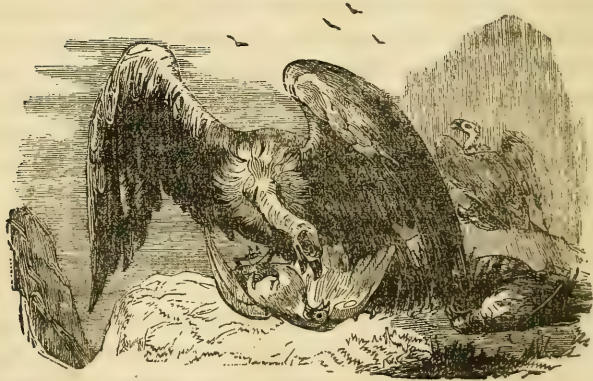
MEANTIME, the emigration went on. The aunts of the king had quitted France ; and Louis XVI., suspected of an intention to follow them, was arrested by the populace, and, with his family, detained in Paris, at the moment when he was preparing to leave the capital for Saint Cloud. The assembly, while proclaiming the inviolability of the monarch, declared that his flight from the kingdom should be construed into a forfeiture of the crown. The deputies, however, after having got rid of all abuses and privileges, and having completed the constitution, began to manifest in their proceedings a more monarchical tendency. This reaction was, in a great measure, attributable to Mirabeau, whose services had been bought by the court, and who was desirous at once to consolidate the throne and maintain all the useful results of the revolution. He procured to be rejected, as striking at individual liberty, a violent decree which had been proposed against the emigrants ; but this was his latest triumph. He died a few days afterwards, (1791,) exhausted by excesses of all kinds, and his remains were borne to the Pantheon. Perhaps he alone could have directed and restrained the revolutionary torrent. His death was a public calamity, and the nation wore mourning for him.

The storm was already muttering on the frontiers, and the emigrants were soliciting all Europe against France. They formed two bodies—the one organized under Condé, at Worms, the other under the comte d'Artois, at Coblenz. This latter prince repaired, accompanied by his minister, Calonne, and Al-

phonse de Dürfort, to the emperor Leopold; and the secret declaration of Mantua, signed on the 20th of May, 1791, was the result of their conference. That declaration promised to Louis XVI. the aid of a coalition, which was to include Austria, the Germanic Circles, Switzerland, and the kings of Sardinia, Spain, and Prussia. But it was the wish of Louis to make one previous effort to restore the monarchy without foreign aid; and he accordingly attempted to repair to Montmédy to join the army commanded by Bouillé. His plan of escape was concerted with that general, who placed detachments at certain distances along the road which the king was to travel. In the night of the 20th of June, the royal family set out, in disguise, from the château of the Tuileries, eluded the vigilance of the guards, passed the barriers of Paris without obstacle, and took the road to Châlons and Montmédy. At the news of this flight, Paris and the assembly at first seemed stupified. The latter, however, immediately took possession of the executive authority, announced its pacific intentions to the different powers, sent commissioners to the troops to receive their oath of allegiance in its own name, and prepared to make it apparent to Paris and to France that a monarch was by no means indispensable to the government of the state. In the mean time, however, tidings of the king's arrest were spread abroad. The unfortunate Louis had been recognised and stopped at Varennes, and all the national guards of the environs were instantly in arms and afoot. The detachments of troops posted along the road were either repulsed or fearful of acting. Bouillé himself hastened up at the head of a regiment; but he came too late—the king had been, for several hours, on the road back to Paris. The assembly had sent three of its members to meet him and insure his return. These were the count de Latour-Maubourg, Pétion, and the young Barnave; and the last of these, touched by the affability and sad destiny of the royal family, resolved, from that moment, to give them his counsel and support. The king was greeted in Paris by a silence of most sinister augury. The assembly suspended him provisionally from the exercise of his functions, and appointed commissioners to interrogate him. The discussions on this subject were stormy—some of the disputants wishing to maintain the king on the throne, and others arguing for his deposition. La-

meth and Barnave joined the moderate party, with the view of defending the monarch, and created the club of the Feuillants for the purpose of opposing that of the Jacobins, the direction of which had been assumed by Pétion and Robespierre, the leaders of the republican party. The assembly, by the advice of Barnave, declared that there was no pretence for bringing Louis XIV. to trial, or pronouncing a forfeiture against him; but at the same time, in order to calm the popular effervescence, it decreed that the king should be considered as having abdicated *de facto* and forfeited his inviolability, if he should make war upon the nation, or suffer it to be made in his name. This decision of the assembly, however, irritated the multitude. The agitators drew up a petition, in which they appealed to the sovereignty of the people, and treated Louis XVI. as having abandoned the crown by his flight. This petition was prepared by Brissot, and carried, on the 17th of July, to the Champ de Mars, where, being laid upon the national altar, Danton and Camille Desmoulins harangued an immense multitude, whom they incited to insurrection. The danger became imminent, and the assembly enjoined the municipality to take charge of the public safety. La Fayette and Bailly marched to the Champ de Mars at the head of a numerous body of the national guards. Bailly read the summonses prescribed by the law, and ordered the red flag to be displayed. The multitude replied to this signal by a shower of stones, and all hope of conciliation being now at an end, it became necessary to have recourse to force. La Fayette commanded the guard to fire. The second discharge was murderous, and dispersed the mob. They took to flight; but never forgave either La Fayette or Bailly for having done their duty on this fatal day. These deplorable dissensions restored confidence to the foes of the revolution, and the emigrants devoted all their energies to promoting a general European confederation for its suppression. *Monsieur* assumed the title of regent at Brussels, Bouillé wrote a fierce and menacing letter to the assembly, and the emperor, the king of Prussia, and the comte d'Artois met at Pilnitz, where, at the risk of compromising the monarch whom they sought to defend, they signed the treaty of the 27th of July. In this declaration they assumed the cause of Louis XVI. for their own, and demanded that he should be restored to the

throne and the assembly dissolved; denouncing the most frightful calamities against France in case of refusal. The indignant assembly replied to these menaces by the levy of a hundred thousand national guards and the arming of the frontiers. The operations of that body were, however, approaching to their close, the convocation of the electoral colleges being fixed for the 5th of August. By a fatal decree, issued previous to the king's flight to Varennes, the members of the existing assembly had formally excluded themselves from eligibility into the ranks of its successor. In vain did Duport exclaim, "How comes it that they who cram us now-a-days with principles have failed to recognise stability as a necessary principle of good government?" The decree was promulgated, and the mania of disinterestedness becoming contagious, Bailly surrendered the mayoralty, and La Fayette the command of the national guards; and thus the conduct of the revolution was surrendered into the hands of a new set of men, who began a fresh revolutionary system of their own, in the sole design of building up a name and fortune to themselves.





LAFAYETTE.

THE LEGISLATIVE ASSEMBLY—THE GIRONDISTS.



THE court, the nobles, and the clergy had exercised no influence over the new elections, which were of a character entirely popular; and the assembly opened its session on the 1st of October, 1791. It proceeded at once to declare itself the national legislative assembly; and, amid the acclamations of the people who thronged the galleries, took, upon the constitutional act, the oath, to live freemen, or to die. The minority of the former assembly had

become the majority of this, and the parties of which it was composed speedily declared themselves. The right, consisting of members formerly attached to the constitution, formed the party of the Feuillants, and was supported by the club of that name, the national guard, and the army. But it was no longer

paramount in the assembly, and was compelled to cede the important post of the municipality to its opponents of the left, who composed the Girondin party, headed by Vergniaud, Guadet, and Gensonné, the celebrated orators of the Gironde, from whence it took its name; and, in conjunction with them, by Brissot, Condorcet, and the violent Isnard. This latter party was disposed to call in, to the aid of the revolution, the passions of the multitude and the weapons of violence,—differing, in that respect, from the constitutionalists, who rejected all other support than that of the law. The centre of the legislative assembly was attached to the new order of things; but the public danger swayed its resolutions, and carried it over to the party of the left. Out of doors, the Girondins were supported by the democratic party, who influenced the populace and the clubs. Robespierre swayed that of the Jacobins; Danton, Camille Desmoulins, and Fabre d'Eglantine governed the still more violent one of the Cordeliers, and Santerre ruled in the faubourgs. Such were the principal chiefs of the popular party, and their power was rapidly increased by the audacious enterprises of the leaders of the revolution.

The number of emigrants continued daily to increase. The king's two brothers and the princes had protested against the acceptance, by Louis XVI., of the constitutional act; and, at their appeal, the nobles quitted their chateaux, and the officers their regiments. Hostile assemblages were formed in the Austrian Netherlands and the neighbouring electorates; and a counter-revolution was in preparation at Brussels, at Worms, and at Coblenz, under the protection of foreign courts. While the emigrant nobles were arranging all things abroad for war, the refractory priests omitted no means of arousing the people in the same cause, by exciting their fanaticism. The bishops forbade the receiving of the sacraments from the priests whom they designated as *intrus*, (interlopers); menacing circulars against all who participated therein, were distributed throughout the country; and dangerous disturbances broke out in Calvados, Gévaudan, and La Vendée. The enraged assembly, on the 30th of October, adopted a decree, which declared Louis-Stanislaus-Xavier, the king's brother, to have forfeited his title to the regency, unless he should re-enter France within two months: and afterwards declared that all Frenchmen assembled be-

yond the frontiers were suspected of conspiring against their country ; and that, if, on the 1st of January, 1792, they should still be in a state of hostile assemblage, they should be treated as such conspirators, and punishable with death : and, finally, it decreed that the refractory ecclesiastics should be required to take the civic oath, under pain of being deprived of their pensions, and should be liable to arrest in the event of religious disturbances occurring within their parishes. The king sanctioned the first of these decrees, but opposed his veto to the two others. At the same time, he declared vehemently against the emigration ; but his court relied on the co-operation of Europe, and was the focus of most of the intrigues carried on against the assembly. Blinded by its hatred towards the constitution and its authors, it committed the great and fatal error of withholding its confidence from the constitutionalists, when they alone were devoted to its defence. In this manner, it lifted the Girondin Pétion to the mayoralty, in preference to La Fayette, and opened up the municipality of Paris to the creatures of the mob.

The national indignation was, at this period, especially excited by the conduct of the frontier princes, who warmly received the emigrants, and encouraged military congregations. The assembly sought to obtain, from Louis XVI., a solemn declaration against these princes, and Isnard concluded a discourse, delivered with this object, from the tribune, in these passionate words :—‘ Let us say to Europe, that if her cabinets engage their kings in a war against the people, we will engage the people in a war unto the death against kings. Let us say to her, that the battles which the people fight against each other, by order of their despots, are like the blows that two friends, misled by a treacherous instigator, aim at each other in the dark. When the light of day appears, they fling away their arms, embrace, and unite in chastising him who deceived them both. And thus, at the moment when the hostile armies shall struggle against ours, should the dawn of philosophy strike their eyes, the nations shall embrace each other, in view of tyrants dethroned, the earth comforted, and heaven approving.’ The proposed measure was carried unanimously and triumphantly, and received the sanction of the monarch. ‘ If,’ said he, ‘ my representations shall be disregarded, it will then but remain for me to propose war.’ The assembly voted twenty millions

for this object; one hundred and fifty thousand men were raised, and three armies were formed, on the northern and eastern frontiers, under the respective commands of Rochambeau, Luckner, and La Fayette. The arraignment of the emigrant princes was, at the same time, determined on, and Monsieur was declared to have forfeited his title to the regency. To these decrees of the assembly, Austria, at that time governed by the prince of Kaunitz, as its prime minister, replied by an order to the *maréchal de Bender* to support the elector of Trèves, in case he should be attacked; and by demanding the restoration of the Germanic princes who had formerly held territorial sway in Alsace,—insisting upon the re-establishment of feudalism in that province, or war as the alternative.

The legislative assembly accused the ministry of weakness and insincerity; and the minister of war, Narbonne, who was sincerely attached to the constitution, having been sacrificed, by means of a court intrigue, to Bertrand de Molleville, the minister of marine, who was justly an object of suspicion, a total breaking up of the council was the consequence, followed by the committal of Delessart, the minister for foreign affairs, for trial before the high court of Orleans. Constrained by circumstances, the king, then, formed a Girondin ministry, whose most remarkable members were General Dumouriez and Roland. The first of these, accustomed to intrigue from his youth upwards, and seeking to push his fortune at any price, was bold, fickle, and unshackled by political convictions of any kind, but gifted with an acute perception, and a genius fertile in resources. The second was a passionate lover of liberty—worthy, by the simplicity of his manners and the austerity of his morals, to be the son of a republic; but his talents were slender, and he was chiefly remarkable by means of his wife, distinguished by qualities at once noble and winning, and herself the soul and counsellor of the Gironde.

The first measure of the new ministry had relation to the war. Leopold was dead, and was about to be succeeded in the empire by Francis II., king of Bohemia and Hungary,—whose accession, however, made no change in the Austrian policy towards France. The prince of Kaunitz, in his name, demanded the restoration to the clergy of the property of the church, of the territories of Alsace to the German princes, and



ROCHAMBEAU.

of the Venaissin to the pope. To this ultimatum of Austria, Louis XVI. replied by a proposition of war, and the assembly decided on its adoption. The invasion of Belgium, occupied by the Prussians, was resolved upon, and Rochambeau was ordered to undertake it. But the first two of the invading columns were seized with a panic at sight of the Prussian army, and fled. Rochambeau shortly afterwards resigned his command; and thenceforth the war assumed a defensive character. The army of La Fayette extended itself from the sea to Longwy, and that of Luckner from the Moselle to the Jura.

This first reverse of the republican arms excited great uneasiness and kindled violent discontent. The court was accused of an understanding with the enemy. The existence within it of an Austrian committee was denounced without any proof, and the assembly declared itself permanent. It issued orders for the disbanding of the king's constitutional guard, which he had increased from eighteen hundred to six thousand

men; and published two decrees, in opposition to the royal will,—by one of which the refractory priests were exiled, and by the other a camp of twenty thousand men was established under the walls of Paris. The ministers implored the king to deprive the opposition clergy of all hope, by admitting the priests who had taken the oaths about his person; but their efforts were unavailing, and a schism broke out, on this subject, in the ministry. Roland wrote a severe letter to Louis XVI. on his constitutional duties, conjuring him to make himself frankly and in good faith the king of the revolution. This letter gave offence to the monarch, and decided the dissolution of the cabinet. The Girondin ministers were dismissed, and, a few days afterwards, the two decrees were rejected by the king. The assembly immediately proceeded to a declaration that three of the members of the late ministry, Roland, Servan, and Clavière, carried with them the regrets of the nation.

The new ministry was chosen from the party of the Feuillants, whose ranks were composed of men, the moderation of whose opinions deprived them of the support of the multitude, while their attachment to the constitution rendered them odious to the court. They were, in consequence, powerless; and the king, himself, perceiving their feebleness, had no longer any hope save in the intervention of Europe, and charged Mallet-Dupan with a secret mission to the combined princes. The monarchists, at the head of whom were Lally and Malouet, made a last effort to retard the forward march of the revolution. Duport, Lameth, Barnave, and La Fayette, attempted to suppress the clubs, and to restore the royal authority. La Fayette wrote to the assembly, denouncing the Jacobins as the fomenters of all disturbances, and imploring it to take none but legal measures for the public weal and safety. This letter, however, had no other effect than that of shaking the credit of the young general. Parties grew more and more divided, and all hope of conciliation gradually vanished. All parties alike sought their triumphs by culpable means. The court reckoned on the co-operation of Europe to enable it to recover its power, and the Gironde relied on the multitude to aid it in establishing its own; while Chabot, Santerre, and the marquis de Sainte-Hurugue agitated in the faubourgs. The anniversary of the *Jeu de Paume* was approaching, and a formidable insurrection was in preparation.

On that day, the 20th of June, thirty thousand men, armed with pikes, descended from the faubourgs, and marched towards the place of session of the assembly, where their chief was engaged in pronouncing a furious discourse. His hideous cortége filed into the hall, singing the bloody chorus of *ça ira*, and amid cries of *Vivent les sans-culottes ! à bas le veto !* From thence, Santerre and Sainte-Hurugue conducted them to the Tuileries, the gates of which the king commanded to be opened. He presented himself, almost alone, before the insurgents ; and, summoned by them to sanction the two decrees, resisted with admirable courage. He dared not, however, refuse the *bonnet rouge*, which was presented to him at the end of a pike, and which he placed on his head, amid the plaudits of the populace. At length, Pétion arrived and harangued the multitude, who dispersed, without resistance,—satisfied, for the moment, with having insulted royalty with impunity.

The constitutionalists, indignant at this outrage, besought the king to grant them his confidence and accept their support. The duc de la Rochefoucauld-Liancourt proposed to conduct him to Rouen, where he held a command ; and La Fayette implored him to place himself at the head of his army. The unfortunate monarch, however, seemed blinded by some fatality, and refused these propositions. La Fayette hastened to Paris, and demanded of the assembly the destruction of the sect of Jacobins, and the punishment of the ringleaders of the 20th of June. Before, however, inviting him to the honour of a place among them, the assembly deliberated if they should not arraign him as a deserter from his post. La Fayette reckoned upon the national guard to support him in closing the clubs :—the court, however, caused the failure of his project,—the national guard refused to respond to his appeal,—and he returned to the army, with the loss of his influence and popularity.



INSURRECTION OF THE 10TH OF AUGUST— FLIGHT OF LA FAYETTE.



T

HE foreign sovereigns were still collecting formidable masses on the frontiers, while the division of parties at home rendered the situation of the kingdom daily more alarming. In the assembly, the king was the object of the most violent invectives, and the question of forfeiture was already agitated in that body, when, on the 5th of July, the assembly declared *the country in danger*. All

citizens capable of bearing arms were called into activity, pikes were distributed, battalions of volunteers enrolled, and a camp formed at Soissons. The revolutionary enthusiasm was at its height, when the federated Marseillois arrived at Paris. Pétion became the object of the popular adoration, and, on the anniversary of the 14th of July, the universal cry of the federation was "Pétion or death." The club of the Feuillants was closed, the companies of grenadiers and chasseurs of the national guard were broken, the Swiss troops and the regiments of the line removed, and all things were tending towards a catastrophe.

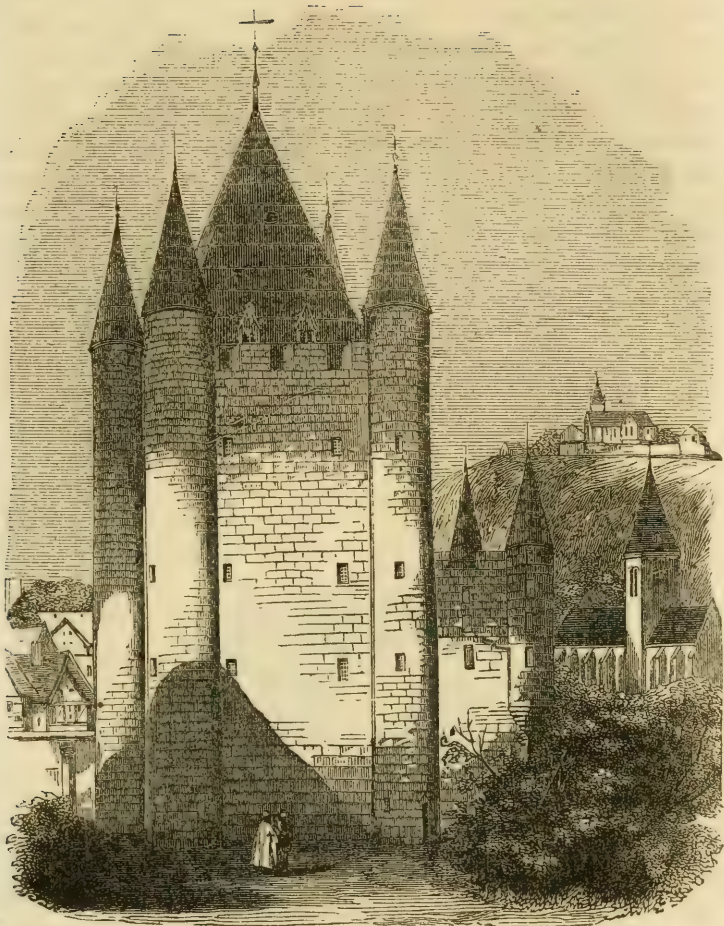
Meantime, the enemy was in motion. The duke of Brunswick, preceded by a threatening manifesto, was advancing at the head of seventy thousand Prussians and sixty-eight thousand Austrians, Hessians, and emigrants. The manifesto in question fulminated fearful menaces against Paris, and all other towns which should have the audacity to defend themselves

It excited everywhere the indignation of the populace, and produced a general rising. In Paris, the popular party was desirous at once to annul the king's authority. Robespierre, Danton, Camille Desmoulins, Fabre d'Eglantine, and the infamous Marat, harangued the multitude and inflamed its madness. On the 3d of August, the mayor Pétion presented himself before the assembly, and, in the name of the city and the sections, demanded the deposition of the king. The petition was referred to a committee of twelve members, and a few days afterwards the question of sending La Fayette for trial was discussed. He escaped by a small majority, and the people hooted and maltreated those who had voted in his favour. Scenes of disorder were daily multiplied, and the insurgents fixed the morning of the 10th of August for an attack on the palace.

The faubourg Saint-Antoine, whither the Jacobins repaired in procession, was the centre of the insurrection; and there it was determined to leave Pétion behind, for the purpose of relieving him from all responsibility, and to substitute an insurrectionary municipality for the council of the commune. At the same time, the agitators spread themselves through the barracks of the confederated Marseillois and Bretons. Informed of these alarming preparations, the court had put the château in a state of defence. The interior was guarded by eight or nine hundred Swiss, and by a body of gentlemen armed with swords and pistols. Several battalions of national guards, and, among others, those of the *Filles-Saint-Thomas* and the *Petits-Pères*, distinguished for their royalist sentiments, occupied the courts and external posts; but a fatal event disturbed their resolution. Mandat, their commandant-general, was summoned before the new council of the commune to give an account of his conduct, and butchered by the mob on the steps of the Hôtel de Ville. Santerre was immediately invested with the command of the national guard; and the court found itself thus deprived of its firmest and most influential defender. The insurgents, animated by the terrible Danton, advanced in several columns and pointed their cannon against the château. The king, overwhelmed with grief, took a review of his defenders; but even in the ranks of the national guard the cries of *Vive le roi!* were drowned amid those of *Vive Pétion!*—*à bas le veto!*

—à bas le traître ! The *procureur syndic*, Rœderer, advanced towards the insurgents, and read to them that article of the law which enjoined the repelling of force by force ; but he was feebly seconded by the national guard, and the insurgents drew fresh daring from that fact. Then Rœderer returned into the château, and declared to the royal family that there was no longer safety for them but in the bosom of the legislative assembly. “ Let us go, sire,” said the queen, presenting him with a pistol, “ the moment to show yourself has arrived.” Louis made no answer ; but, after a few moments, he gave the signal for departure, and repaired to the hall of the assembly amid the insults and clamours of the populace. Vergniaud presided over the chamber, and the king placed himself by his side ; but Chabot having reminded the assembly that they could not deliberate in the presence of the king, Louis and his family withdrew behind the president into the obscure box of the *logographe*, (short-hand writer.)

The cause of the contest had ceased to exist since the king’s departure for the assembly ; yet it continued, nevertheless, to rage furiously between the Swiss and the assailants, of whom the Marseillois and Bretons formed the advanced guard. The attack was directed by the daring Westermann, formerly a subaltern adjutant. The Swiss, whom their first fire had rendered masters of the Carousel, were soon driven back by the multitude and cut to pieces. This was the last day of the monarchy. The new municipality came before the assembly to demand the recognition of its powers, preceded by three banners, on which were inscribed the words *patrie, liberté, égalité*, (our country, liberty, equality ;) and concluded its address by demanding the king’s deposition and a national convention. Vergniaud replied by proposing the convocation of an assembly extraordinary, the dismissal of the ministers, and the suspension of the royal office. These measures were approved : the Girondin ministers were recalled, Louis XVI. was conducted to the Temple, and the 23d of September was fixed for the opening of the assembly, which was to decide on the destinies of the nation. From that moment the revolutionary movement was directed rather to the maintenance of the public safety than the promotion of liberty ; and La Fayette perceived that such was its future mission, after having himself made incredible efforts for



THE TEMPLE.

the re-establishment of the constitutional monarchy. The enemy's army was approaching, and the country was menaced by civil war. Under these circumstances, La Fayette could not hesitate between the resignation of his command and the chance of provoking internal strife. He abandoned his army, accompanied by Bureau de Pusy, Latour-Maubourg, and Alexandre de Lameth, and passed the frontier. Recognised by the Austrian posts, he was arrested and imprisoned by the emperor, first at Magdeburg, and afterward at Olmutz, in defiance of the law of nations. There he exhibited a noble courage during four years of cruel captivity. His release was made conditional, on certain retractations which were required from him; and he chose rather to remain in fetters than abjure the cause to which he had dedicated his fortune and life.



COMMENCEMENT OF THE REIGN OF TERROR—SEPTEMBER MASSACRES—BATTLE OF VALMY.



IN Paris, the victor party of the 10th of August proceeded to the establishment of its authority, by the most violent measures. It caused all the statues of the kings to be thrown down, abrogated the departmental directory, and abolished the qualifications required by law for the citizen franchise—thereby opening up to the multitude an unrestricted

access into the government. Finally, the same party demanded from the assembly the establishment of an extraordinary tribunal for the trial of those whom it called the conspirators of the 10th of August. The required tribunal was established; but its administration of justice seemed too tardy to the savage crowd, which obeyed the inspirations of Marat, Panis, Sergent, Jourdeuil, Collot-d'Herbois, Billaud-Varennes, and Tallien, and was, above all, swayed by the turbulent and terrible Danton, recently appointed to the ministry of justice, and named the Mirabeau of the mob.

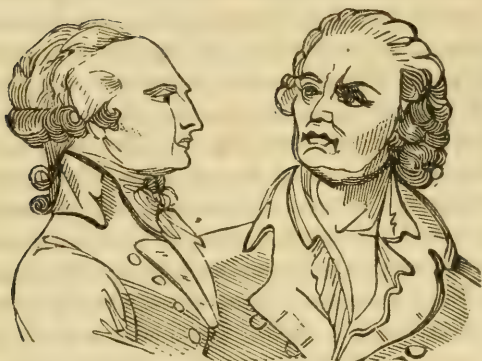
The Prussians, supported by thirty-six thousand Austrians and ten thousand Hessians, menaced the northern frontier; and six thousand French emigrants, under the prince de Condé, marched, in co-operation with them, against France. The army of Sedan was without a leader, and the foreign invasion

rapidly advanced. Longwy, invested by the invaders, capitulated, Verdun was bombarded, and the road from that place to Paris was open. Terror reigned in the capital, and in the executive council the question of retiring beyond the Loire was debated. Danton, however, contended that France was Paris, and *there* they must maintain themselves at all risks and whatever cost. He concluded his address by these portentous words: "My advice is, that, for the purpose of confounding the agitators and arresting the enemy, it behooves us *to strike terror into the royalists.*"

Accordingly, numerous arrests were immediately ordered, the prisoners being selected from the dissentient classes of the nobles and clergy. Regiments were marched to the frontier, the drums beat to arms, and cannon were fired. The news of the taking of Verdun reached Paris in the night between the 1st and 2d of September, and spread dismay throughout the capital. The populace seized upon this moment for the accomplishment of its execrable projects: the tocsin was sounded, the barriers closed, and the massacres of the prisons commenced. During three days, the unhappy nobles and priests recently consigned to the Abbaye, the Conciergerie, the Carmes, and the Force, were slaughtered by three hundred murderers, amid a hideous parody of judicial forms. On the part of the victims, traits of noble resignation and the most heroic devotion, and on that of the butchers, acts of atrocious madness were multiplied through all that fearful time. Skilful in the invention of tortures for those even whom their hands could not reach, they enacted their horrible saturnalia beneath the walls of the Temple itself—presenting to the eyes of the queen, at the windows of that royal prison, the bleeding head of her friend, the unfortunate princess de Lamballe. The assembly would have put a stop to these massacres, but wanted the power. The mayor Pétion was suspended from his functions, the good among the citizens were terror-struck, and the mob reigned supreme in Paris. These dreadful scenes did irreparable injury to the revolutionary cause, and their punishment returned at last on the heads of their ferocious authors.

The Prussians continued to advance; and Dumouriez, who had been appointed to the command of the army on the Moselle, threw himself, by an inspiration of genius, into the forest of

Argonne, the only position in which he could arrest the march of the enemy. There, he established the main body of his army at Grand-Pré and Les Islettes, and wrote as follows to the assembly:—"I am waiting for the Prussians. The camp of Grand-Pré and that of Les Islettes are the Thermopylæ of France; but I shall be more fortunate than Leonidas." The Prussians were, in fact, compelled to suspend their march; but a fault committed by Dumouriez compelled him to abandon his position and fall back on the camp of Sainte-Menehould, where he concentrated his forces and awaited the reinforcements which Beurnonville and Kellermann were leading towards him. His army amounted to seventy thousand men. On the 20th of September, the Prussians attacked Kellermann, at Valmy, with the intention of cutting off the retreat of the French army. The action was confined to a sharp cannonade, which was prolonged until the evening, and the honour of the day remained with the French. This first success, unimportant as it was in other respects, animated the republican army and gave it confidence in itself, at the same time that it surprised the enemy, to whom the emigrants had spoken of this invading campaign as of a mere military promenade. The duke of Brunswick was without magazines, and the season was growing unfavourable. He offered to retire, on condition that the French should restore the constitutional king to his throne. The executive council replied "that the French republic could listen to no proposition until the Prussian troops should have evacuated the territory of France." Brunswick thereupon ordered a retreat, which was commenced on the 30th of September. The French re-entered Verdun and Longwy, and the enemy repassed the Rhine at Coblenz. The campaign had been marked, likewise, by other successes at different points. On the Rhine, Custine had possessed himself of Trèves, Spire, and Mayence; Montesquiou had invaded Savoy, and Anselme the county of Nice. Everywhere the French armies had resumed the offensive, and the revolution was triumphant.



ROBESPIERRE AND DANTON.

THE NATIONAL CONVENTION.



THE first act of the new assembly, which assumed the title of the National Convention, was to abolish royalty and proclaim the republic; its next, to declare that it would date from the year I. of the French republic.

These measures were voted

by unanimous acclamation; but a short time only had elapsed ere the two parties who, towards its close, had divided the legislative assembly, recommenced a furious contest, the issue of which was fatal to both. The parties in question were that of the Girondins, who sat on the right of the assembly, and that of the Mountain, who occupied the upper part of the left, from which position they derived the name by which they were designated. The first of these, respectable alike by their intelligence and the uprightness of their intentions, were sincerely republicans; but, in the volcanic condition at which the nation had arrived, their disgust for the multitude and their repugnance towards all violent measures placed them in a false po-

sition, and they had lost the confidence of the constitutionalists without acquiring that of the democrats. The Mountain party, less enlightened and less eloquent than the Girondins, were more consistent, more decided, and nowise scrupulous in the choice of means. The extreme of democracy appeared to them the best of possible governments, and their principal leaders were Danton, Robespierre, and Marat. The latter two of these, in particular, were objects of hatred to the Girondins. Robespierre, moderately endowed with talents, but devoured by envy and ambition, had hitherto kept himself aloof, always declaring, whether in the constituent assembly, in the Jacobin club, which he ruled, or in the convention, against those who, by turns, had obtained the ascendancy in each. He aimed at the highest place for himself; and, associating the cause of his own vanity with the passions of the populace, he triumphed over all superiority by branding it with the names, at that time odious, of aristocracy and privilege. He imposed on the multitude by an austere life and the externals of patriotism, and won its affections by lavishing on it the wealth and blood of the vanquished. Marat, a furious fanatic, had made himself the avowed apostle of murder in his discourses and in his infamous journal, *L'Ami du Peuple*, (The Friend of the People.) He advocated a dictatorship to combat the enemies of the revolution, and extermination in the mass for their removal. These two leaders, worthy the one of the other, left far behind them Danton and his partisans, who, in the career of murder, would have paused at the massacres of September. In the assembly, the Girondins prevailed over their rivals, and they had the departments in their favour; but the terrible commune of Paris was devoted to the Montagnards, who, by its means, directed the insurrections; by that of the Jacobins, the public mind, and, finally, the sections and the faubourgs by the aid of the *sans-culottes*. A third party, but without decided opinions and without system, fluctuated between the two others, and was known as the party of the *Plain*, or of the *Marais*. It was made up of men for the most part well-intentioned, but wanting in firmness. So long as they had nothing to apprehend for themselves, they voted for the Gironde, and kept it in a majority; but fear finally flung them into the ranks of the opposing party.

The Girondins, and, among others, the spirited Barbaroux,

chief of the Marseillois, accused Robespierre of aiming at a tyranny; but this accusation, ill sustained, recoiled upon Marat, who was the daily panegyrist of murder. The latter sought to clear himself from the charge, but his appearance in the tribune excited a movement of horror; and, when this fearful man calmly exclaimed, "I have, in this assembly, many personal enemies," "All, all!" was the general cry. This attack, however, had, notwithstanding, no result; but a few days later it was resumed against Robespierre. "No one," said the latter, "dares accuse me to my face." "I dare!" exclaimed Louvet, and, rushing to the tribune, he overwhelmed Robespierre by a brilliant and vigorous denunciation, prefacing each new enumeration of a grievance by the emphatic formula, "Robespierre, I accuse thee." The future tyrant would have been conquered on that very day, but he asked and obtained a week to prepare his defence, and the dispute was terminated by the order of the day. Thus it was that the Girondins contributed to swell, by their attacks, the importance of their adversaries, not perceiving that they must conquer and crush them, or perish themselves. Powerless against the citizens, they abandoned, in addition, the club of the Jacobins to their enemies, and irritated the populace of Paris by demanding that the guard of the assembly should be composed of a body drawn from the departments. From this circumstance, they acquired the name of *Federalists*, with the reproach of seeking to arm the provinces against the capital; while the Mountain party procured a decree declaratory of the unity and indivisibility of the republic.



TRIAL AND EXECUTION OF LOUIS XVI.



THE French arms were triumphant in Belgium, where, on the 6th of November, Dumouriez gained the celebrated victory of Jemmapes over the Austrians, near Mons. On the 14th, he entered Brussels, while his generals took possession of Namur and Antwerp. The Austrians were driven back beyond the Roër, and all Belgium was subdued. From that time began the dissensions between the conqueror Dumouriez and the Jacobins. These latter pounced upon the conquered provinces as their prey. The Flemings had received the French enthusiastically, as liberators; but the Jacobins soon estranged them by oppressing them with extortions, and delivering them over to an odious state of anarchy. Indignant at their proceedings, Dumouriez repaired to Paris, with the two-fold object of repressing their violence and saving Louis XVI. His efforts, however, in the one cause and the other, were alike powerless.

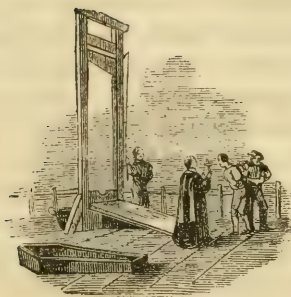
For the last four months, the unfortunate monarch had languished in the tower of the Temple, with the queen, Madame Elizabeth, his sister, an angel of gentleness and goodness, and his two children, dividing his hours betwixt the care of their education and reading. The city exercised a cruel surveillance over its captives, and laboured, by overwhelming them with mortifications, to prepare them for the frightful catastrophe which awaited them. The discussion on the trial of the king was opened in the convention on the 13th of November, and

the principal charges against him arose out of papers found at the Tuileries in an iron chest, the secret of which had been revealed to the minister Roland. Therein were discovered all the plottings and intrigues of the court against the revolution, as well as the arrangements with Mirabeau and the general Bouillé. Other papers, too, found in the office of the civil list, seemed to establish the fact that Louis XVI. had not been altogether a stranger to the movements negotiated in Europe in his favour. As king, however, the constitution had declared him inviolable; besides, he was deposed, and could not, but in defiance of every law, be condemned for acts anterior to his deposition. The Montagnards themselves felt all the illegality of the proceedings directed against him. Robespierre, in demanding his death, repudiated all forms as fictions, and relied, as did Saint-Just, solely on reasons of state. "What," said the latter, "have not good citizens and true friends of liberty to fear, when they see the axe tremble in your hands, and a people, in the very dawn of its freedom, respecting the memory of its chains?" The Mountain party, in earnestly labouring for the condemnation of the king, had a further object than the single one of punishing him. They were anxious to crush the Gironde, which had openly manifested a desire to save him, and to arrive at power by prolonging the revolutionary movement through the means of this frightful *coup d'état*. The large majority of the assembly persisted in the determination to submit this great process to judicial forms; and Louis XVI., who had already been separated from his family, appeared as a culprit before the convention, whose jurisdiction he did not challenge. His countenance was firm and noble; his answers were precise, touching, and almost always triumphant. Conducted back to the Temple, he demanded a defender, and named Target and Tronchet. The first of these refused the office, and the venerable Malesherbes offered himself in his place, and wrote to the convention in these memorable words: "Twice have I been called to the councils of him who was my master, in the days when that function was an object of ambition to all men. I owe him the same service, now that it is one which many find dangerous." His request, which was granted, deeply affected Louis XVI. When he appeared before him, the monarch pressed him in his arms, and said, with tears in his eyes, "You

expose your own life, and will not save mine." Tronchet and Malesherbes immediately set about the preparation of the king's defence, and associated with themselves M. de Sèze, by whom it was pronounced, and who concluded his pathetic pleading by these true and solemn words: "Placed on the throne at twenty years of age, Louis carried thither the example of morality, justice, and economy. He brought with him no weakness, and no corrupt passions. He was the unvarying friend of his people. That people desired the destruction of a burdensome impost, and Louis destroyed it; the people desired the abolition of servitude, and Louis abolished it; the people solicited reforms, and Louis gave them; the people sought to alter its laws, the king consented; the people desired that their alienated rights should be restored to millions of Frenchmen, and Louis restored them; the people sighed for liberty, and the king bestowed it. The glory cannot be denied to Louis of having even anticipated the wishes of his people in his sacrifices, and yet he it is whom you are asked to——. Citizens, I dare not speak it! I pause before the majesty of history. Remember that history shall hereafter judge your judgment of to-day, and that the judgment of history will be that of ages!" But the passions of the judges were blind and implacable; a unanimous vote declared Louis guilty, and the appeal to the people which the Girondins demanded was refused.

It only now remained to decide what punishment should be inflicted. The ferment in Paris was at its height; a furious multitude surrounded the door of the assembly, denouncing frightful menaces against all who should incline to mercy. At length, after forty hours of nominal deliberation, the president Vergniaud announced the result of the votes. Out of one hundred and twenty-one, there was a majority of twenty-six for death. Malesherbes endeavoured to address the assembly, but his voice was choked by sobs. A respite was demanded, but in vain; and the fatal sentence was pronounced. Louis had one last and heartrending interview with his family after his condemnation, and then prepared himself for death. He slept calmly, received the offices of the church, and confided his last wishes to his faithful and only remaining servant, Cléry. Shortly afterwards, Santerre arrived, and Louis went forth to execution. He ascended the scaffold with a firm step, and on

his knees received the benediction of the priest, who thus addressed him: "Son of Saint Louis, ascend to heaven!" He then suffered his hands to be tied, and turned to the multitude. "I die innocent," he said; "I forgive my foes; and for you, oh! wretched people"—! Here his voice was drowned in the roll of the drums, the executioners seized him, and in another instant he had ceased to live. Thus perished, on the 21st of January, 1793, after a reign of seventeen years, one of those kings who have most illustrated the throne by their virtues. He had the honesty of intention necessary for originating reforms, but wanted the strength of character necessary for their enforcement—the firmness which might have enabled him to direct the revolution and bring it to a favourable issue.



VENDEAN WAR—DESERTION OF DUMOURIEZ.



AFTER the outrage of the 21st of January, indignant Europe flew to arms with one accord. From that moment, the revolution reckoned as its declared enemies England, Holland, Spain, the whole of the Germanic confederation, Bavaria, Swabia, the elector Palatine, Naples, and the Holy See, and afterward Russia. Almost at the same time, too, La Vendée assumed a menacing and formidable aspect.

France had to contend, besides her enemies at home, against three hundred and fifty thousand of the best troops in Europe, who were advancing upon all the frontiers of the republic. To meet dangers so alarming, Danton and the Mountain party, who had adopted him as their chief, by their discourses and by means of insurrections, aroused the enthusiasm and fanaticism of the populace in the names of *liberty, equality, and fraternity*, and kept it in that perpetual condition of violent crisis that they might be enabled to dispose of its passions and its madness. Danton it was who founded the despotism of the multitude, under the name of revolutionary government. A levy of three hundred thousand men was ordered, and a tribunal extraordinary created, consisting of nine members, commissioned to punish the domestic enemies of the revolution, and whose decrees were to be without appeal. The Girondins contended against an institution at once so arbitrary and so formidable; but their resistance was in vain. Stigmatized with the titles of intriguers and foes to the people, already was their destruction determined on. Marat and Robespierre incited the

multitude to the extremes of violence against that party, and a project for assassinating the entire body, in a nocturnal insurrection, was formed by the Jacobins and Cordeliers, which, however, miscarried. On the following day, Vergniaud ascended the tribune, and there denounced these murderous designs. "Our march," said he, "is from crime to amnesty, and from amnesty to crime. A majority of our citizens have arrived at the point of confounding the insurrections of sedition with the great insurrection of freedom, and mistaking the outrages of brigands for the explosions of ardent souls! Citizens, it is but too greatly to be feared that the revolution, like Saturn, will devour all her children, one after the other, and nourish only despotism, with the multitude of calamities which follow in its train." Prophetic, but fruitless warnings! The insurrection of La Vendée redoubled the daring of the Jacobins. Already partial troubles had broken out in that portion of Brittany and Poitou, nearly covered, as it was, with woods, without roads or commerce, and where the absence of trade, by preventing the development of the middling classes, closed up the avenues to knowledge. There the ancient manners had been preserved, accompanied by the prejudices and customs of feudalism; and there the rural population still remained submissive to their priests and nobles. These latter had not followed the tide of emigration. The requisition of three hundred thousand men was followed by the breaking forth of the insurrection generally throughout La Vendée. Its first leaders were the wagoner Cathelineau, Charette, a naval officer, and the gamekeeper Stofflet. Nine hundred communes rose at the sound of the tocsin, and the principal nobles, Bonchamps, Lescure, Laroche-Jacquin, D'Elbée, and Talmont joined the insurgents, and eagerly seconded the movement. They defeated the troops of the line and battalions of the national guard which marched against them. All things, in fact, yielded before the passionate intrepidity of the Vendean peasants. Without arms, they seized on the artillery by precipitating themselves upon the cannon which mowed them down. One after the other, the republican generals, Marcé, Gauvilliers, Quétineau, and Ligonier were overthrown. The victorious Vendéans, masters of several strongholds, formed three corps of from ten to twelve thousand men each. The first of these, under Bonchamps, occupied the

banks of the Loire, and was called the army of Anjou; the second, under D'Elbée, occupied the centre, and was distinguished as the grand army; and the third formed the army called that of the Marais, under Charette, and occupied the lower Vendée. A council of operations was established, and Cathelineau proclaimed generalissimo. This formidable revolt provoked from the convention measures still more rigorous against the priests and nobles. All who joined any assembly were outlawed, the property of emigrants was confiscated, and the revolutionary tribunal entered on its terrible functions. Another enemy likewise declared himself about this time. Dumouriez, after an unsuccessful invasion of Holland, had lost the battle of Nerwinde against the prince of Coburg, commander-in-chief of the Austrian army, and been compelled to evacuate Belgium. Long at open war with the Jacobins, he had contemplated their overthrow and the restoration of the constitutional monarchy. After his defeat at Nerwinde, finding himself more than ever exposed to their furious attacks, he meditated a desertion from the cause of the republic, and formed the project of marching upon Paris in concert with the Austrians. It is to be presumed that his design was to cause the young duc de Chartres (then in his camp, and who had distinguished himself at Valmy and Jemmapes) to be crowned. He offered to the Austrians several strongholds, as a guarantee of his intentions; but he failed in the attempt to get possession of these places, and at the same time completed his own exposure to the convention. That body, informed of his designs, summoned him to appear instantly at its bar, and, on his refusal, sent the minister of war, Beurnonville, and four deputies, Camus, Quinette, Lamarque, and Bancal, commissioned to bring him before them, or arrest him in the midst of his army. Dumouriez delivered them up to the Austrians; but he had reckoned too confidently on the affection of his troops. The republican enthusiasm took possession of them, and Dumouriez found himself abandoned. He had then no other resource than to pass over to the camp of the Austrians.

FALL OF THE GIRONDINS.



THE Girondins had been as earnest as the Mountain party in their condemnation of Dumouriez. They were, nevertheless, accused of being his accomplices; and Vergniaud, Brissot, Guadet, Gensonné, and Pétion became the special objects of the atrocious persecutions of Robespierre and Marat. For one moment, they assumed an attitude of energy; and

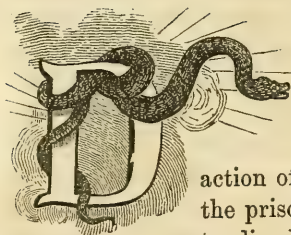
denounced Marat before the revolutionary tribunal. He was acquitted, however, and carried in triumph into the assembly; and, from that day, the *sans-culottes* occupied the avenues and galleries of the chamber. Guadet proposed vigorous measures for releasing the assembly from the tyranny of the Jacobins and the citizens,—such, for example, as the abolition of the municipal body, and the removal of the convention to Bourges. Barrère, however, procured the adoption of a middle course; and the assembly created a committee of twelve members, commissioned to watch the proceedings of the municipal body, and to arrest the authors of plots against the national representation. A war of extermination, which finally proved fatal to the Gironde, immediately sprang up between it and the municipality. The commission of Twelve, in the first instance, spread terror through that body, by the arrest of the infamous Hébert, the author of the execrable pamphlet of the *Père Duchesne*, whom they seized in the very midst of the municipality. The Jacobins, the Cordeliers, and the sections declared their sittings permanent, and organized a formidable insurrection, under the

direction of Danton. An immense multitude marched to the assembly; where their deputies, being admitted, boldly demanded the release of Hébert, and the dissolution of the Twelve. The Girondins resisted; but the Montagnards and the *sans-culottes* in the galleries broke out into vociferations and menaces against them. The sitting was prolonged, amid fearful disorder; and at length, amid darkness, shouts, and tumult, the petitioners, confounded with the Montagnards on the same benches, passed a vote for the suppression of the Twelve, and the enlargement of the prisoners. This decree was revoked on the following day; and the corporation, the Jacobins, and the sections renewed their agitation. Robespierre, Marat, Danton, Chaumette, and Pache, the mayor of Paris, combined to conduct this second insurrection, which was more formidable than that which preceded it. Henriot commanded the armed force; and forty sous a day were promised to each of the *sans-culottes*, for so long as they should continue under arms. Alarm-guns were fired, the tocsin was sounded, and the insurgents marched against the convention. The Tuileries, where that body sat, was blockaded, and all free deliberation rendered impossible. Barrère, therefore, and the committee of public safety, with whom the committee of Twelve had originated, demanded its suppression, which was definitively decreed. This was enough for Danton; but not for Robespierre, Marat, and the corporation. "We must not," said a Jacobin deputy, "suffer the people to cool." Henriot placed the armed force which he commanded at the disposal of the club, and the arrest of the Girondin deputies was determined on. Marat himself sounded the tocsin,—Henriot commanded the movement,—and, on the 2d of June, eighty thousand armed men surrounded the convention. The intrepid Lanjuinais flew to the tribune, interrupted by furious vociferations, and denounced the projects of the factious. "Paris is pure," he cried, "but Paris is misled and oppressed by tyrants who thirst for blood, and long for power." He concluded by proposing that all the revolutionary authorities of the capital should be dissolved. The insurgent petitioners entered the hall, at this moment, and demanded his arrest and that of his colleagues. A violent debate ensued, and was proceeding, when the deputy Lacroix rushed into the chamber, complained of the outrages which he had suffered from the

multitude, and declared that the convention was coerced. Even the Montagnards themselves were indignant; and Danton exclaimed, that it became them to avenge the insult to the national majesty. The convention rose in a body, and set forward, with its president at its head. On the Place du Carrousel, it was met by Henriot, on horseback, and sabre in hand. "What is it that the people demand?" said the president, Hérault de Séchelles; "the convention is occupied only for its good." "The people have not risen to listen to set phrases," replied Henriot; "they require that twenty-four of the culprits shall be delivered up to them." "Let us all be delivered up!" exclaimed the deputies. Henriot pointed his cannon against them,—and the convention fell back. Surrounded on all sides, they returned, discouraged, to the hall of session; the arrest of the proscribed members was no longer opposed by them, and Marat decided, like a dictator, upon their fate. Twenty-four illustrious Girondins were confined to their own houses by the assembly, and the appeased multitude dispersed; but, from that day, the party of the Gironde was broken down, and the convention was no longer free.

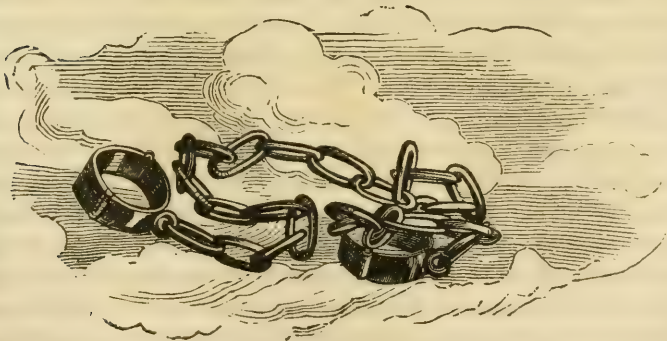


FALL OF DANTON.



ANTON, and his friends Camille Desmoulins, Philippeaux, Lacroix, Fabre d'Eglantine, and Westermann, sought to restore legal order; and with that view desired to arrest the action of the revolutionary tribunal, to empty the prisons filled with suspected persons, and to dissolve the committees. With this view, Camille Desmoulins, a man full of talent and energy, produced, under the name of the *Vieux Cordelier*, a journal inveighing against the despotism of the dictators. The most formidable of these was Robespierre; and Camille and his friends endeavoured to gain him over. But Robespierre played them one against the other; and, affecting neutrality between the adverse parties, meditated the overthrow of their chiefs, by each other's means. His colleagues in the committee of public safety were furious against Camille and the Dantonists; and Robespierre abandoned these latter to them—obtaining from them, in return, the heads of Hébert, Cloutz, Chaumette, Ronsin, and the principal anarchists of the commune. This compact being concluded, he ascended the tribune, and denounced to the convention, as foes to the republic, the ultra-revolutionists, on the one hand, and the Dantonists (whom he designated as the *modérés*—‘moderates’) on the other. He was followed by Saint-Just, who spoke to the same effect,—thundering against the enemies of virtue and those of the *terror* government, to which he procured to be given the most extensive powers for the punishment of the parties in question. The anarchists of the commune, Hébert, Cloutz, Ronsin, and their accomplices, were first seized and condemned, and most of them died cowards. The revolutionary army was broken up; and the convention compelled the commune to appear at its bar, and thank it for the very acts by which the power of the latter body

was annulled. But the time of the Dantonists, too, was come. Representing, as they did, the old Mountain party, their names, especially that of their chief, seemed as yet, all-powerful. Warned of the hostile intentions of his enemies, Danton replied, as did of old the duc de Guise, "They dare not!" But the committee rightly reckoned on the terror of the assembly; and the Dantonists were arrested on the 10th Germinal, (1794.) Robespierre prevented their being heard in the assembly. "We will see, this day," he said, "if the convention dares to break down a pretended idol, which has long since fallen into decay, or if that idol, in its overthrow, is to crush the convention and the people of France." Saint-Just read the report against the accused parties; and the assembly, stupified by terror, ordered that they should be sent to trial. Arraigned before the revolutionary tribunal, they distinguished themselves by their boldness, and the scorn which they exhibited towards their judges. On their being condemned, Danton exclaimed: "We are sacrificed to the ambition of a few dastardly brigands; but they shall not long enjoy their triumph. I drag after me Robespierre—Robespierre shall follow me." They advanced with firmness to the place of execution, amid a silent multitude. From that moment, no voice was, for some time, raised against the decemvirs; and the convention proclaimed that *terror* and *all the virtues* were the order of the day.



FALL OF ROBESPIERRE.



EARIED out and disgusted by the atrocities by which the republic was disgraced at home, a certain number of the Mountain party resolved to bring them to a close, and to avenge Danton, Camille Desmoulins, and the rest of their slaughtered friends. At the head of these were Tallien, Bourdon de l'Oise, and Legendre. They were supported, in the committee of public safety, by Billaud-Varennes and Collot d'Herbois, both of whom were jealous of the authority assumed by the triumvirs, and, in that for the general security, by Vadier, Voulant, and Amar, all of whom belonged to the overthrown faction of the commune. Irritated by their obstinate resistance, Robespierre had determined upon crushing and immolating them; and they felt that they must be beforehand with him, or be his victims. They began by accusing him of tyranny in the committees, and designating him under the name of Pisistratus. Next, they reproached him with a desire to pass himself off for a messenger from God, by encouraging certain mysterious assemblies, held by an old Chartreux friar, Don Guerle, and an absurd fanatic, named Catherine Théot, whom they sent to execution, in spite of his opposition. From that moment, Robespierre seldom appeared in the committees, but established the centre of his power in the club of the Jacobins, from whence he denounced those whom he called Dantonists. All-powerful in this body, master of the lower orders, and supported by Fleuriot, the mayor, by Henriot, the commandant of the armed force, and by the revolutionary tribunal, all the members of which were his creatures, he thought himself strong enough to commence the attack, in the very heart of the convention; and, on the 8th Thermidor, he there denounced the committees. He was

heard in silence ; and experienced his first check by having his discourse referred to the examination of those same committees whom he had accused. In the evening, he repaired to the Jacobins, and there gave vent to his anger. He was enthusiastically received ; and, during the night, all things were prepared by his party for an insurrection ; while a league was formed, among the conventionalists, between the Dantonists, the party of the right, and the Marais. Under these threatening auspices, opened the sitting of the 9th Thermidor. Saint-Just ascended the tribune, in front of which sat Robespierre. He was interrupted by Tallien and Billaud, who commenced the attack. Robespierre rushed forward to reply ; but was met, on all sides, by the cry of—*A bas le tyran !* Tallien waved in his hand a poniard, with which he threatened to pierce the heart of Robespierre, whom he denounced as *another Cromwell !* He succeeded in obtaining a decree for the arrest of Henriot, and a declaration of the assembly that its sitting was permanent. Barrère caused it to place itself under the protection of the armed sections. “Now, let us think about the tyrant !” resumed Tallien ; while overwhelming cries of menace prevented Robespierre from being heard. He made, however, one final effort :—“President of murderers !” he cried, “for the last time, I ask, will you give me a hearing ?” Unable to obtain it, he stormed like a madman, flew from bench to bench of the assembly, and addressed himself, with supplications, to the members of the right, who turned from him with loathing. At length he fell back in his seat, exhausted with fatigue, and foaming at the mouth. “Wretch !” cried a member to him, “the blood of Danton chokes thee !” His arrest was forthwith proposed ; and his brother and Lebas demanded to share his fate. The assembly unanimously ordered that they should be seized, along with Robespierre, Couthon, and Saint-Just ; and delivered them into the hands of the gendarmes. “The republic,” exclaimed Robespierre, “is lost, and the brigands triumph !” The victory, however, was still undecided ; the Jacobins had likewise declared themselves permanent, swearing to die rather than live under a reign of crime. The municipal deputies repaired to their assembly ; and Henriot traversed the streets, sabre in hand, and shouting, “To arms !” He was arrested, however, along with the national agent, Payan, and

bound with cords. During the day the convention was triumphant, and in the evening the insurgents were once more uppermost. They marched in a body on the prisons, and delivered Robespierre, Henriot, and their accomplices. Henriot immediately caused the convention to be surrounded, and pointed the cannon against it. Terror reigned in the assembly; but the very imminence of the peril inspired them with vigorous resolutions. Henriot was outlawed; his gunners refused to fire, and fell back with him upon the Hôtel de Ville. This refusal decided the success of the day. The convention, in its turn, resumed the offensive, attacked the commune, and outlawed its rebel members. Barras was named commander-in-chief of the armed force; the battalions of the sections swore to defend the assembly, and defiled in the chamber, before it, animated by Fréron. "Set forward!" cried the president, "that day may not dawn ere the heads of the conspirators have fallen." It was midnight when the armed bands marched against the commune; whither Robespierre had been borne in triumph, and where he now sat motionless, and paralyzed by terror. On the Place de Grève the multitude read the proclamation of the assembly, by which the commune was outlawed; and the terrified groups dispersed, leaving the place deserted. The Hôtel de Ville was surrounded, amid cries of *Vive la convention!* The proscribed parties abandoned themselves to rage and despair. Robespierre fractured his own jaw with a blow from a pistol; Lebas killed himself; the younger Robespierre threw himself out from a window of the third story, but survived the fall; Couthon stabbed himself, with a trembling hand, and without fatal effect; Coffinhal overwhelmed Henriot with imprecations, and flung him from a window into a drain. The conquerors arrived, and seized their prisoners; and on the following day they were led to execution. An immense multitude crowded around the cart in which Robespierre, his head bound with a bloody cloth, lay betwixt Henriot and Couthon, both mutilated, like himself. The people interchanged congratulations and embraces before his eyes; curses were poured out against him; and, at the moment when his head fell beneath the knife, long salvos of acclamation arose from the crowd. France breathed afresh—and the reign of terror was at an end.



MURAT



BONAPARTE'S FIRST CAMPAIGN IN ITALY.



IT was in 1796 that Bonaparte, then twenty-six years of age, was achieving the prodigies of his Italian campaign. His first proclamation inflamed the ardour of his soldiers, and his words were justified by deeds. The victories of Montenotte and Millesimo were the brilliant *coup d'essai* of the young general, powerfully seconded by his lieutenants, Augereau, Serrurier, Massena, La Harpe,

Murat, and Joubert. Besides these, he had under his orders Belliard, Berthier, Colonel Rampon, and the illustrious Lannes, then a simple *chef de bataillon*. All these men were destined to a glorious celebrity. The Austrian generals Beaulieu and Colli retired before Bonaparte, who crossed the Alps and gained the battle of Mondovi, thereby subjecting Piedmont to his arms. Victor Amadeus III. accepted peace from the conqueror, and withdrew from the coalition. All the roads which communicated with France were occupied by the troops of the republic.



BATTLE OF LODI.

Bonaparte deceived the Austrians by fictitious manœuvres, passed the Po, and laid the duke of Parma under contribution. He triumphed at Lodi, and at the passage of the Adda, where his grenadiers carried with the bayonet a bridge which was swept by the enemy's guns. From that moment, his army became invincible. Beaulieu effected his retreat, abandoning behind him Cremona, Milan, Pavia, Como, and Cassano,—into which places the French entered. Bonaparte received the submission of the town of Genoa, and that of Hercules d'Este, duke of Modena. That prince paid to the French ten millions, and retired to Venice. General Vaubois took possession of Leghorn, where six hundred Corsicans had taken refuge. These Bonaparte sent back to their island, to get up an insurrection against the English; who were, in consequence, expelled thence. The conqueror imposed on the pope, as the conditions of peace, a payment of twenty-one millions, and one hundred master-pieces from his museums. The king of Naples was taxed at six millions. Bonaparte then marched upon Vienna; and the army of the Sambre and Meuse, under Jourdan, and that of the Rhine, under Moreau, moved in the same direction. The archduke Charles, the emperor's brother, was commander-in-chief of the Austrian army; and Moreau began by gaining from him four consecutive victories. He was, then, about to join his forces with those of Jourdan, when, inspired by the danger in which he saw himself placed, the archduke detached thirty



GENERAL HOCHÉ.

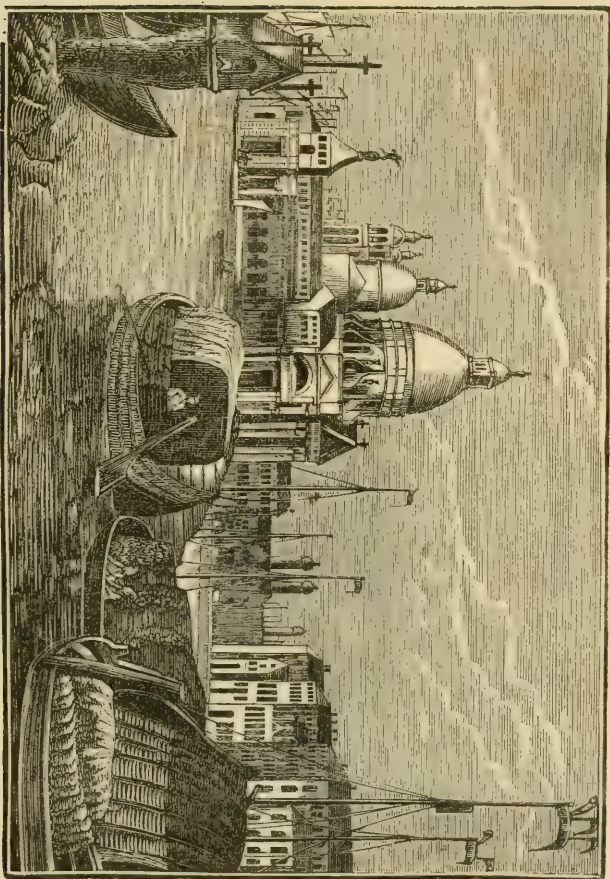


BATTLE OF ARCOLE.

thousand men, whom he sent against the advanced guard of Jourdan, overthrew it, cut off the communication between the two armies, and crushed that of the Sambre and Meuse, compelling it to fall back, in the greatest disorder, on the point from whence it had set out. He then directed his entire forces against Moreau; who, master of Ulm and encamped at the gates of Munich, covered an immense ground, and reckoned on the army of Jourdan to maintain himself there. Deprived of this succour, he commanded, and executed an admirable retreat, traversing more than one hundred leagues of country, in presence of a formidable enemy, and in the midst of a hostile population, and re-entered Friburg, without having suffered his line of march to be once broken.

Bonaparte, however, continued to triumph over all obstacles, and approached Mantua. He blockaded that place, and entered the territory of the city of Venice, which was ruined by its neutrality. Old Wurmser raised the blockade of Mantua; Bonaparte triumphed in the celebrated battles of Castiglione and Lonato; but a skilful march brought Wurmser with thirty thousand men into Mantua. Bonaparte turned the place, blockaded it anew, and gained the brilliant victory of Arcole, where he performed prodigies of valour, and exposed himself to great dangers. The victory of Rivoli, (1797,) in which Joubert had

a great share, followed closely upon that of Arcole ; and the pope, who had, at length, taken up arms at the instigation of Austria, was compelled to give in his submission. Wurmser, pressed by famine in Mantua, determined upon capitulating, and all Europe rang with the name of the conqueror. From that moment, Bonaparte foresaw the great destiny that awaited him, and neglected no means of fortune or fame. In the intervals of his battles, he conversed with savants and poets, extolled the republic, and in all things gave evidence of the future ruler. Affable with his lieutenants and soldiers, to the directors he exhibited a haughty reserve, and had, at the same time, the art to make his presence at the head of his triumphant army appear to them indispensable. He availed himself of the popular sympathies against governments ; and transformed Lombardy into a Cisalpine republic, of which Milan became the capital. Numerous reinforcements having reached him from France, he marched again upon Vienna, having Prince Charles in his front. Massena commanded the advanced guard, and immortalized himself by his victories at Tagliamento and elsewhere. Carinthia and Styria were rapidly subdued ; terror reigned at Vienna ; and Bonaparte awaited the movements of the other armies to penetrate further. Hoche commanded that of the Sambre and Meuse ; and Moreau retained that of the Rhine. Their progress was slow ; and Joubert, whom Bonaparte had left behind, with three divisions, for the defence of the Tyrol, was beaten by Prince Charles, and compelled to retreat. Informed of this reverse, Bonaparte sent to Vienna to treat for peace ; and an armistice was concluded at Leoben. The French general ceded to Austria Mantua and a portion of Venetian Lombardy which he had conquered, in exchange for the Cisalpine republic which he had founded. The directory rejected these preliminaries ; and Bonaparte suggested Venice to Austria, as an indemnity for Mantua. The fate of that republic was, accordingly, decided. The French emissaries, everywhere, excited the people against the senate ; but at Verona, a city dependent on Venice, the French garrison was slaughtered in a popular revolt. Bonaparte, who sought but a pretext to justify an act of spoliation, inveighed furiously against the Venetian republic, and demanded vengeance for the massacre of Verona. Nothing could appease him ; and General Baraguay d'Hilliers marched against Venice.



Alarmed at his approach, the senate voted a constitution, in the hope of conciliating France, and then dissolved itself. The French entered the city; and, by the definitive treaty of Campo Formio, delivered it to Austria, in exchange for the Belgic and Lombard states. Mantua was added to the Cisalpine republic; as were also the Bolognese and Romagna. The congress of Radstadt was opened, at the same time, to treat of peace with the empire. The release of General La Fayette and his three companions in misfortune was one of the articles of the glorious treaty of Campo Formio. All the combined powers, with the exception of England, had laid down their arms; and France had extended her system in Europe,—a great portion of her frontiers, from the North Sea to the gulf of Genoa, being covered by republican states.





SURRENDER OF CAIRO.

BONAPARTE'S EXPEDITION TO EGYPT.



THIS expedition appears to have been planned by the French Directory for the purpose of employing their army, and acquiring glory for the republic. The command was given to Napoleon Bonaparte, who departed from Toulon with a fleet of four hundred sail, accompanied by a body of celebrated *savants*, and a portion of the army of Italy. On his way he took possession of the island of Malta, and then made sail for the coast of Egypt: (1798.)

The expedition to Egypt was a brilliant one. The Mamelukes, a body of cavalry independent of the Porte, and of sovereign authority in Egypt, oppressed that unhappy country at the period of Bonaparte's landing, and alone offered a gallant resistance to his arms. In the first conflict, which took place in the village of Chebreissa, Bonaparte was the conqueror; that victory was closely followed by the brilliant one of the pyra-



JUNOT



BATTLE OF THE NILE.

mids; Cairo opened its gates on the ensuing day; and Rosetta and Damietta surrendered. Mourad Bey, the chief of the Mamelukes, retired into Upper Egypt; and there Desaix, despatched in pursuit of him, at once displayed extraordinary talents, and won blessings for his justice and moderation. About the same time the English admiral, Nelson, gave a mortal blow to the navy of France. Admiral Brueys having imprudently anchored the French fleet in the roads of Aboukir, Nelson attacked it there, and completely destroyed it. Bonaparte, however, took great pains to gain the affections of the Egyptians, by conforming to their usages, and quoting the Koran as authority for his decrees. He relieved, at the same time, from the hereditary oppression to which they were subjected, the Christians called Cophts, considered to be the descendants of the ancient Egyptians—and founded an institute at Cairo. Then, after having extinguished a formidable revolt, got up in that city against his army by the Ottoman Porte, he quitted the scene of his conquest, for the purpose of undertaking that of Syria, intending from thence to penetrate into India, and there strike the English in one of the sources of their power. His army traversed sixty leagues of burning desert, to march upon Gaza, which opened its gates. Jaffa and Kaïffa were carried, and Saint-John-of-Acre invested. But Bonaparte wanted siege-



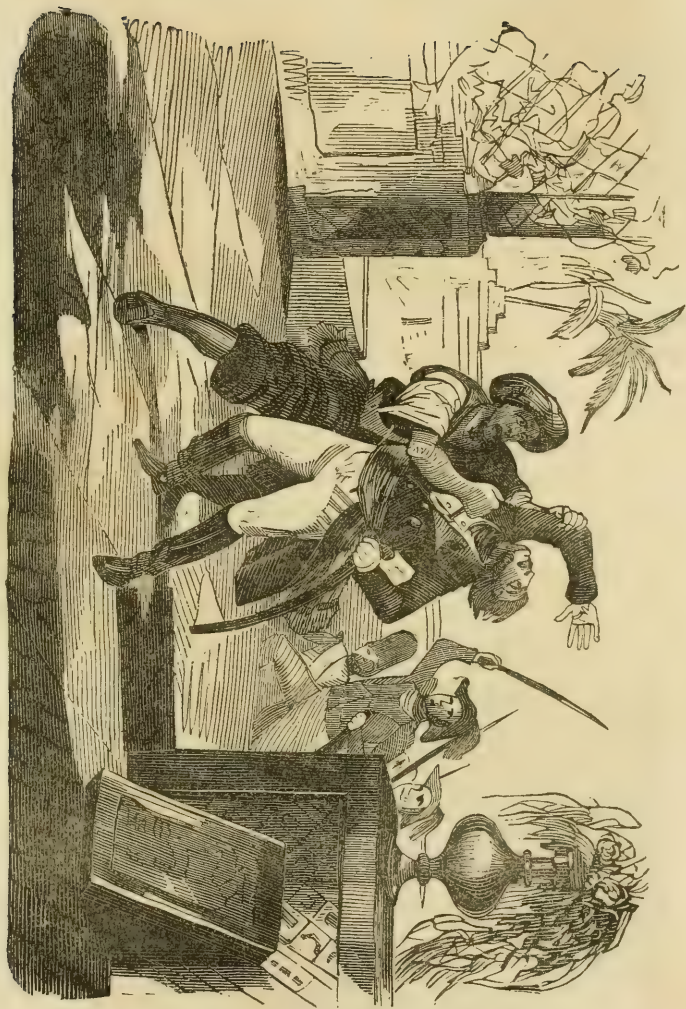
REVOLT OF CAIRO.

artillery ; and made seventeen furious but fruitless assaults upon this place, defended by the joint talents of the French engineer Phélippeaux, and the English commodore, Sir Sidney Smith. His army was surrounded by the Turks ; but they were defeated



SIEGE OF ACRE.

at Nazareth, by Junot : and Bonaparte, assisted by Kléber and Murat, gained the celebrated battle of Mount Tabor. After this victory, he raised the siege of Acre, and returned to Cairo ; where he learned, by the journals, the events of the 30th Prairial, and the disturbed situation of the republic. Anarchy



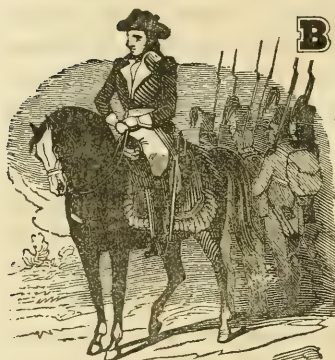


reigned at home ; a second forced loan had excited the indignation of the middling classes : while the odious law of hostages, which rendered the relatives of emigrants responsible for the outrages committed by the Chouans, once more armed the royalists of the west and south against the Directory. Italy, with the exception of Genoa, was lost. Joubert had been killed at the bloody battle of Novi, gained by Suwarrow ; and the allies were advancing on the French frontiers, through Holland and Switzerland, where they were arrested by Brune and Massena. Informed of this state of things and minds, Bonaparte determined to overthrow the directorial government, and to repair at once to France, whither he was preceded by the intelligence of a new and brilliant victory. Eighteen thousand Turks having landed in the bay of Aboukir, Bonaparte, supported by Murat, Lannes, and Bessières, fell upon this army and annihilated it. Immediately after this victory he set out, leaving Kléber* in command of the army of Egypt ; crossed the Mediterranean in the frigate *Le Murion* ; escaped, as by miracle, from the English fleet ; and landed in the gulf of Fréjus, on the 9th of October, 1799—a few days after the celebrated victories of Zurich and Berghen, gained, the first over the Austrians, by Massena, and the second by General Brune, over the duke of York.

* Kleber was subsequently assassinated in Egypt. His death took place on the same day, June 14th, 1800, as that of Desaix, at Marengo.



BATTLE OF THE PYRAMIDS.

REVOLUTION OF THE 18TH BRUMAIRE.

BONAPARTE traversed France as a conqueror, and was received with enthusiasm by the masses of the moderate party in Paris. He now altered his line of conduct. Hitherto he had refrained from attaching himself to any system. Affecting great simplicity, and occupying modest apartments in the Rue Chantereine, he saw himself courted by the heads of each party, and deceived them all. Sièyes dreaded him; but the support of a military chief was essential to the execution of his designs. Bonaparte was in a condition to aid him, and in the end Sièyes and he came to an understanding. Their object was to overthrow the constitution; and with this view the generals, with the exception of Bernadotte, were gained over—as was also the garrison of Paris. On the 18th Brumaire, on the demand of Regnier, one of the conspirators, the council of the *anciens* declared that, in virtue of the right which the constitution gave it, it transferred the legislative body to Saint-Cloud, under the pretext that its deliberations would there be more free. Bonaparte was charged with the execution of this measure, and invested with the military command of the division of Paris. He immediately attacked the Directory by speeches and by proclamations. “What,” said he, “have you done with that France which I left to you so covered with glory? I left with you peace, and I return to find war;—I left victories, and I find

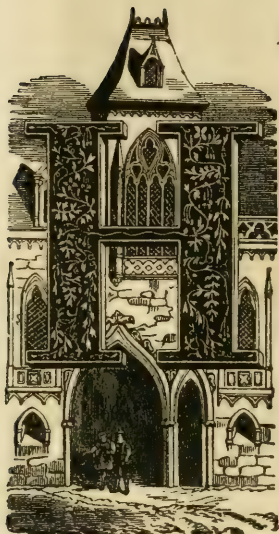
but disasters. What have you done with a hundred thousand Frenchmen of my acquaintance—the companions of my fame?—they are dead.” In this manner, while accusing his adversaries, he contrived to insinuate his own vast importance. On the same day, Sièyes and Roger-Ducos repaired to the Tuileries and laid down their authority. Their three colleagues would have resisted, but their own guard refused obedience to them. Barras, losing all hope, sent in his resignation; Moulins and Gohier were detained prisoners: and the struggle was now to commence between Bonaparte and the council of the *cinq-cents*.

On the 19th Brumaire, the legislative body repaired to Saint-Cloud, accompanied by an imposing armed force. Bonaparte presented himself first before the council of the *anciens*; and being summoned to take the constitutional oath, he declared that the constitution was vicious, and the Directory incapable, and appealed to his companions in arms. From thence he repaired to the council of the *cinq-cents*, which sat in the Orangery, and where the agitation was already at its height. His presence raised a violent storm:—“Outlaw him! Down with the dictator!” resounded on every side. Accustomed to brave an enemy’s fire, rather than the menaces of a deliberative assembly, Bonaparte grew pale and agitated, and was hurried away by the grenadiers who formed his escort. The tumult continued to rage in the chamber, where Lucien, the brother of Napoleon, presided, and attempted his defence. On all sides the outlawry of the tyrant was loudly called for; and Lucien, being required to put the question to the vote, quitted the chair, and divested himself of the insignia of the magistracy. Bonaparte had him carried from the hall; and both brothers, mounting on horseback, harangued the soldiers—one as the conqueror of Italy and Egypt, and the other as president of a factious assembly. The enthusiasm of the troops broke loudly forth; and Bonaparte, addressing them, exclaimed;—“Soldiers! can I reckon upon you?”—“Yes! yes!” resounded on all sides; and Bonaparte immediately ordered the council of the *cinq-cents* to be expelled. A troop of grenadiers entered the hall, under the command of Murat, who said:—“In the name of General Bonaparte, the legislative body is dissolved. Let all good citizens retire!—Grenadiers, advance!” The shouts of

indignation which arose in answer were drowned in the roll of the drums: the grenadiers advanced, and the deputies fled before them, escaping by the windows, amid cries of *Vive la republique!* Freedom of representation was, on that day, at an end; and of the French republic there now remained nothing but the name.



CAMPAIGN OF AUSTERLITZ.



AD Napoleon, after the peace of Amiens, preferred the interests of France to those of his own ambition, he might have secured to the nation the fruits of twelve years of internal and external struggle, and become the moderator of Europe. But he chose rather to be its sovereign, and, keeping his eyes steadily fixed on the great image of Charlemagne, believed that he was himself summoned to the same high destinies. His first object of ambition was to add to the title of emperor of the French that of king of Italy; and the representatives of the Cisalpine republic decided that their country should be erected into a

kingdom in his favour. Napoleon set out instantly for Milan, where he put on the iron crown of the Lombard kings, and appointed Eugène de Beauharnois, his step-son, viceroy of Italy. The establishment of this kingdom, the annexation to the empire of the territory of Genoa and that of Piedmont, and the efforts of the English cabinet, once more directed by Mr. Pitt, revolted Austria, and united that country, England, and Russia, (where the emperor Alexander had succeeded to his murdered father,) in a third coalition against France. Napoleon was at this time at Boulogne, meditating a descent upon England, and preparing a formidable armament for that purpose. On learning that two hundred and twenty thousand Austrians were advancing in three bodies, under the archdukes Ferdinand, John, and Charles, towards the Rhine and Adige, and that two Rus-



CAMP AT BOULOGNE.

sian armies were in march to join them, he suddenly quitted Boulogne, passed the Rhine on the 1st of October, 1805, at the head of one hundred and sixty thousand men, and advanced into Germany, while Massena arrested Prince Charles in Italy. The Danube was crossed and Bavaria occupied, and Napoleon and his generals vied with each other in boldness and success—Murat triumphing at Vertingen, Dupont at Hasslach, and Ney at Echlingen. Bewildered by such a series of rapid reverses, the Austrian general, Mack, suffered himself to be invested in Ulm, and laid down his arms, with thirty thousand men. This capitulation opened the gates of Vienna to the French, and Napoleon made his entry into that city on the 13th of November. From thence he marched into Moravia to meet the Russians, and encountered them with the remains of the Austrian army in the plains of Austerlitz. The battle was fought on the 2d of December, the anniversary of his coronation; and there Napoleon gained the most brilliant of all his victories. The battle of Austerlitz put an end to the third coalition, and was followed, on the 26th of December, by the peace of Presburg. By this treaty the house of Austria ceded the provinces of Dalmatia and Albania to the kingdom of Italy, and a great number of its possessions to the electorates of Bavaria and Wurtemberg, which were erected into kingdoms. But the year 1805, so fruitful in triumphs for France on the continent, beheld like-



NELSON.

wise the complete ruin of her navy. The combined fleets of France and Spain, under the command of Admiral Villeneuve, beaten on the 22d of July at Cape Finisterre, lost on the 21st of October the celebrated battle of Trafalgar. Thirty-two French and Spanish ships were beaten by twenty-eight English sail, under the command of Nelson, and thirteen ships alone of the combined fleet escaped. This great victory, which cost the English admiral his life, secured to England the sovereignty of the seas, and it was no longer on that element that Napoleon attempted to disturb her power.



DEATH OF NELSON.



NAPOLÉON.

INVASION OF SPAIN.



SWEDEN was the only power in the north which, after the treaty of Tilsit, had remained in arms. Her feeble monarch, Gustavus IV., declared himself the avenger of Europe against Napoleon; but, abandoned by England and plundered by his former ally, Russia, he saw Stralsund and the Isle of Rugen carried off before his eyes, lost Pomerania, and by his foolish pride alienated from himself the affections of his subjects. The entire shores of the Baltic submitted to the French yoke. England had, some months previously, vainly attempted to subdue the Ottoman Porte, at that time at

war with Russia and an ally of France. An English fleet, after having with this design passed the Dardanelles, had been beaten back by formidable batteries, hastily thrown up by the French ambassador, Sebastiani. There remained but one single state which acknowledged the direct influence of Great Britain. That state was Portugal, and Napoleon, who, by the decree of the continental blockade, had arrogated to himself the right of disposing, at his own good pleasure, of the destinies of nations, signed at Fontainebleau, on the 27th of September, 1807, an iniquitous treaty with Spain, by which Portugal, in chastisement of her alliance with England, was to be almost entirely shared between the king of Etruria and Godoy, prince of peace, who governed the Spanish monarchy. This treaty acknowledged the king of Spain, Charles IV., as suzerain of the two states formed by the dismemberment of Portugal. A proclamation announced, on the 13th of December, 1807, that the house of Braganza had ceased to reign. Twenty-eight thousand French, under the command of Junot, were charged with the execution of this sentence, and, before their arrival at Lisbon, the prince-regent of Portugal embarked for Brazil, abandoning his capital and his fleet to the invading army.

This rapid success, and the scandalous dissensions of the royal family of Spain, inflamed the ambition of Napoleon, and accustomed him to look upon the peninsula, in part or in whole, as his conquest. The feeble Charles IV., entirely governed by the queen's favourite, Godoy, had rendered himself contemptible in the eyes of all his subjects, of whom Ferdinand, the prince of Asturias, became the idol, as the declared enemy of the obnoxious favourite. Napoleon, at the summit of his fortune, was an object of admiration and reverence to Charles IV. and his son. Already he had been chosen as the arbiter of their differences, and the prince of Asturias had solicited the honour of an alliance with his family. It was in the emperor's power, by pacific measures, to have exercised a sovereign influence over Spain, and profited, advantageously for his own system, by the hatred with which a number of maritime disasters had inspired the Spaniards against England. This, however, was not sufficient for his ambition, and, while the eyes of all the royal family of Spain were turned towards him in hope, a French army passed the Pyrenees, under Murat, the grand-

duke of Berg, and suddenly the news reached Madrid that the strongholds of Barcelona, Figueras, Pampeluna, and Saint Sebastian were militarily occupied by the French. (A. D. 1808.) Soon afterwards, Napoleon, in contempt of the treaty of Fontainebleau, openly demanded the annexation to his empire of the provinces on the left bank of the Ebro. Charles IV. and the queen were smitten with dismay, and Godoy counselled them to imitate the prince-regent of Portugal, and embark for their dominions in America. His advice was adopted, and preparations were making for their departure; but Ferdinand opposed the measure, and, summoning the population of Aranjuez to arms, denounced to them, as new treacheries, the dastardly counsels of Godoy. An insurrection was the consequence, in which the troops took part, and which was directed by Ferdinand. He caused Godoy to be arrested, kept his father prisoner, compelled him to abdicate, and then made a triumphal entry into Madrid, in the character of king of the two Spains. On the following day, however, Murat, without awaiting the emperor's orders, entered that capital with his army. Charles IV. protested against his compulsory abdication, and Murat refused to acknowledge the royalty of Ferdinand. "Napoleon, alone," he said, "must decide between the father and son." The emperor came to Bayonne, whither he invited King Charles and his son to repair, that he might pronounce as supreme arbiter of their differences and destinies. They obeyed the summons, and Napoleon, master of their persons, decided for the father, and compelled him to abdicate in his own favour. Charles IV. had the château of Compiègne assigned for his habitation, and his son was held captive in that of Valençay. Thus was consummated an odious act of usurpation, whose results became fatal to its author, and gave the first blow to his fortune by shaking the stability of his throne. Murat, however, retained possession of Madrid, and, swayed by French influence, the council of Castile was induced to demand, as king of Spain, Napoleon's eldest brother, Joseph.

An assembly of notables was immediately convened at Bayonne, at which the emperor organized a junta charged with the provisional government. Joseph yielded up the crown of Naples to Joachim Murat, instantly quitted that capital, and arrived at Bayonne on the 7th of June, where he was acknow-



JOSEPH BONAPARTE.

ledged king of Spain by the duke de l'Infantado, and a deputation of the grandees and different bodies of the state. The assembly of Bayonne voted a constitution, to which Joseph swore, and on the 9th of July he was in march for Spain. But already the Spaniards, indignant and furious at the usurpation, had flown to arms. The clergy set the example of revolt, declaring that heaven was interested in the cause of Ferdinand, and denouncing Napoleon as antichrist. The army had risen in mass, and a provisional junta of government, assembled at Seville, disputed and annulled the acts of the junta of Bayonne. On Saint Ferdinand's day, a new "Sicilian Vespers" sounded against the French throughout the whole of Spain. Their squadron was seized at Cadiz, and the crews slaughtered, and the Spaniards signalized their vengeance, in a variety of places, by massacres and crime. They declared war to the death against the French, and the Portuguese followed their example. However, Bessières was victorious at Medina de Rio Secco, and his success opened the gates of Madrid to King Joseph, who

made his entry into that capital on the 20th of July. Almost immediately afterwards, however, General Dupont shamefully capitulated at Baylen, and laid down his arms with twenty-six thousand soldiers. This terrible check gave a shock to the French authority in the peninsula, and redoubled the daring of the Spaniards. Joseph was obliged to quit Madrid one week after his solemn entry. Portugal revolted, and an English army landed there under the command of Sir Arthur Wellesley, afterwards the duke of Wellington. Junot, with only ten thousand men, risked the battle of Vimiera against twenty-six thousand English and Portuguese. He was beaten, and shortly afterwards signed the convention of Cintra, which at least left him at liberty to return to France with honour. Portugal was evacuated, and already Joseph possessed no more than Barcelona, Navarre, and Biscay, in all Spain. The English, so recently enemies to the Spaniards, were received by them with open arms. The star of Napoleon began to wane, and the *prestige* of the invincibility of the French arms, under his reign, was at length destroyed.





MARSHAL LANNES.

THE WAR IN SPAIN AND GERMANY.



DETERMINED to subdue Spain, Napoleon strengthened his alliance with Alexander, by an interview, at Erfurt, in September and October, 1808; and, secure of the pacific intentions of that emperor, he recalled his legions from the banks of the Niemen, the Spree, the Elbe, and the Danube, and directed them against Spain, where his presence at the head of his veterans soon changed the aspect of things. The battles of Burgos, Espinosa, and Tudela, in which his eagles were triumphant, once more opened to Joseph the gates of Madrid. Arrived in that capital, Napoleon promised franchises and the abolition of feudalism to the Spaniards; but he spoke to a people who scarcely understood him, who had no ears but for their priests, and whose heroism displayed itself only in their impatience of a foreign yoke. Their answers to the liberal promises of the usurper were cries of execration and rage. They organized themselves into guerilla bands, who converted Spain into a second Vendée for the troops of France. Everywhere the population rose, and flew to arms; and the vow of national independence became a bond to unite the constitutionalists with the partisans of the clergy, against their common enemy, France. The English were approaching, and Napoleon marched to meet them. But his course was suddenly arrested by the intelligence that Austria, emboldened by his absence and the withdrawal of his veteran troops, had formed a fifth coalition with England and the holy see, (1809;) and that the archduke Charles was again in arms, and with difficulty held in check by Davoust, whose force was inferior. Napoleon instantly quitted Spain, flew to the Rhine, triumphed at Eckmühl and at Ratisbonne; and the French army entered a second time, as victors, into the capital of Austria. On the 22d of May, was fought, on some islands



DEATH OF MARSHAL LANNES.

in the Danube, the bloody and indecisive battle of Essling ; in which the emperor lost thousands of brave men, and his friend Lannes, duke of Montebello. The corps of Marmont and Eugène rejoined the grand army, and repaired its losses ; and, after the victory of Raab, the terrible battle of Wagram, in which no less than twelve hundred pieces of cannon swept the ranks of the two armies, terminated the war in favour of France. The vanquished Francis I. signed, on the 14th of October, the peace of Vienna, whereby he ceded several provinces, and gave in his adherence to the continental system. Pope Pius VII., who, groaning under the partition of his territories, had given his countenance to this coalition, and threatened the emperor with the thunders of the Vatican, was dethroned from his temporal sovereignty, brutally torn from the pontifical palace, and consigned to a four years' captivity, first at Savone, and afterwards at Fontainebleau ; and the ancient metropolis of the world was degraded into the capital of a French department. A hundred thousand English had, during this campaign, attempted a descent upon Holland ; Flushing had fallen into their power, and Antwerp was menaced by them. But the strong defensive condition of this place, and a levy of national guards in the northern departments, rendered their efforts unavailing. Their ranks were thinned by sickness in the marshes of Zealand ; and they evacuated Flushing, after having sustained considerable



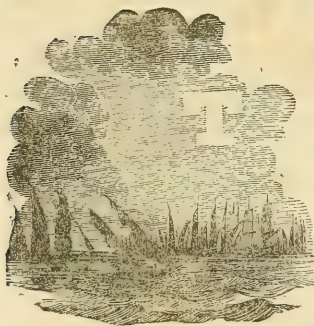
THE EMPRESS JOSEPHINE.

losses. The resistance to Napoleon's arms in the peninsula was, however, continued, notwithstanding numerous victories gained by his generals. Sebastiani had triumphed at Ciudad-Real, Victor at Medelin, and Soult at Oporto, where twenty thousand Portuguese were left upon the field of battle. But the lofty example of Palafox, the defender of Saragossa, and the heroic conduct of the inhabitants of that town, who buried themselves beneath its ruins rather than submit to the conqueror, excited the enthusiasm and redoubled the energies of the Spaniards. The English, hailed by them as deliverers, successfully seconded their efforts. On the 28th of July, Joseph fought against Sir Arthur Wellesley the indecisive battle of Talavera, which however, the English celebrated as a victory. In vain did Sebastiani triumph on the 21st of August, at Almonacid; and Mortier, with twenty-five thousand men, overthrow fifty thousand at Ocana, on the 19th of November; in vain was Andalusia open to the French; Spain was still unsubdued. Soult in the south, and Suchet in the north, commenced the campaign of 1810. Grenada, Malaga, and Seville were occupied by the French; and the provisional junta of Seville removed to Cadiz, which was unsuccessfully besieged by Marshal Victor. It was at this period that South America threw off the Spanish yoke, and proclaimed the federal government of Venezuela. Massena, prince of Essling, at the same time, sustained the war in Portugal against Wellington, whose army was greatly superior to that of the French; but the success of the campaign was compromised by a serious misunderstanding which arose betwixt him and Marshal Ney. He marched upon the capital, was beaten at Busaco, and his progress finally arrested in the month of December, by Wellington, before the formidable lines of Torres Vedras, which covered Lisbon.

While the peninsula was thus devouring the flower of the French armies, Napoleon attained the highest point of his marvellous destinies. Induced alike by his anxiety for an heir, and his desire to ally himself with the old European dynasties, he divorced his first wife, Josephine de Beauharnois, and on the 30th of March, 1810, married Maria-Louisa, archduchess of Austria, and daughter of the emperor Francis.



NAPOLEON'S RUSSIAN CAMPAIGN.



OWARDS the close of 1811, a commercial ukase re-opened the ports of Russia to the colonial produce of England, and the armies of Alexander approached the Niemen. At the same time, Sweden renounced her adhesion to the continental system; and shortly afterwards, a sixth confederation against France was formed between England, Russia, Sweden, Spain, and Portugal,—

France being voluntarily seconded by Italy and Poland, and constrainedly so, by Germany, Prussia, and Austria. The sultan Mahmoud, the successor of Selim, who had been slain by the janissaries, entered, at this period, into treaty with Russia, and signed the peace of Bucharest. Napoleon repaired to Dresden: where his court was composed of most of the crowned heads and princes in Europe; and there he made final but fruitless efforts to re-attach Alexander to his system. That which he failed in obtaining by means of persuasion, he determined to secure by

force of arms; and war was declared against Russia, on the 22d of June, 1812.

Napoleon took the field, at the head of four hundred thousand soldiers, passed the Niemen, on the 24th of June, with half his forces, and halted at Wilna seventeen days. That delay was fatal to his arms. The diet of Warsaw, during his sojourn in Poland, proclaimed the re-establishment of the kingdom, and the liberation of the entire nation. A deputation demanded of the emperor that he should recognise the existence of Poland. Napoleon hesitated and gave finally an evasive answer. After a glorious action, he arrived at Witepsk, the hostile army, under Barclay de Tolly, retiring before him. A bloody battle was fought before Smolensko, which was abandoned to the flames. The Russians fell back, and the French continued to advance. Valoutina witnessed a murderous conflict; but the disobedience of one of Napoleon's generals saved the army of the enemy from total destruction. Still, however, that army retreated, followed by the emperor. At length, on the 5th of September, the grand army arrived on the plains of Borodino, a few miles from Moscow, on the banks of the Moskowa, and found itself in presence of the whole Russian army, commanded by the veteran Kutusoff. A general engagement was determined on for the following day; and on that memorable morning, Napoleon, issuing from his tent thus addressed his officers:—"How bright, to-day, is the sun!—it is the sun of Austerlitz!" Then, in a proclamation to his soldiers he said,—“The battle is now at hand for which you have so longed: acquit yourselves as you did at Austerlitz, at Friedland, at Witepsk, at Smolensko; and let posterity the most remote refer with pride to your deeds of this day. Let men say of each of you, when they shall behold you,—‘He was at that great battle on the plains of Moscow!’” The fight began almost immediately afterwards, and was a terrible one. Ney, Murat, Eugène, Davoust, Gérard, and Poniatowski performed prodigies of valour. Auguste Caulaincourt was mortally wounded, while carrying, in a gallop, a formidable redoubt, at the head of his cuirassiers. The Russians at length gave way, after a most sanguinary struggle. Napoleon restrained his guards, and suffered the enemy, whom he might have annihilated, to escape. Twenty-two thousand French and fifty thousand Russians were killed or wounded on that murderous day. A great number of



the generals of France was slain, but the victory was hers, and Marshal Ney was proclaimed prince of the Moskowa, on the field of battle. A second engagement took place at Mojaïsk, half a league from Moscow, where the Russians were again beaten; and their army entered into the ancient capital of their empire only to abandon it. Thither the French penetrated, after them: but were astonished at the solitude which reigned within its walls. The streets were deserts, and the inhabitants had fled. Napoleon entered, unresisted, into the ancient citadel of the Kremlin. Moscow he looked upon as an asylum, after the sufferings and fatigues of his army. He found immense resources within the city, and here, therefore, he resolved to establish his winter quarters,—and looked proudly around on his conquest. But during the night a frightful conflagration broke out. Rostopchin, the governor of the city, had determined, in evacuating it, on an immense sacrifice, for the salvation of his country. Russia was lost, if the French should find a shelter in Moscow. At an appointed signal, and by order of Rostopchin, a band of convicts spread themselves throughout the city, carrying flame in their hands, and set fire to it in a thousand parts. Moscow crumbled away beneath the conflagration, and little more of her was left, in a few hours, than a heap of cinders and ruins.

The winter was approaching, and the French had no longer an asylum to look forward to against its rigours: Napoleon



NAPOLEON LEAVING RUSSIA.

still flattered himself with the hope of peace, and Alexander prolonged the negotiations purposely, with the view of detaining his enemy amid the ruins of Moscow. At length, however, the negotiations were broken up, and the order was issued for retreat. The emperor quitted the city at the head of a hundred thousand fighting men, after forty days of fruitless expectation. “Your day of warfare is ended,” said old Kutusoff, “and ours is about to begin.” The winter set in suddenly, with more than its usual rigour, even in Russia. The French troops, paralysed by the cold, were pursued and harassed in their retreat by innumerable enemies, and the roads were covered with their frozen corpses. Still, however, the army marched in tolerable order as far as the Beresina, which it had to cross in the presence of three Russian armies. The river was, as yet, unfrozen over, though covered with floating ice. It was necessary to construct rafts, under the fire of the enemy, and at the same time make head against them unceasingly. At this place were again achieved prodigies of heroism; but the rafts were encumbered by multitudes of stragglers and disarmed soldiers, and, yielding to the pressure, thousands of men were engulfed in the waters of the Beresina. At length, after incredible efforts, this formidable barrier was cleared; but the moral as well as physical strength of the soldiers was gone; the cold set in with renewed rigour; and the retreat was, thenceforth, one vast and frightful rout.



COMMODORE TRUXTUN.

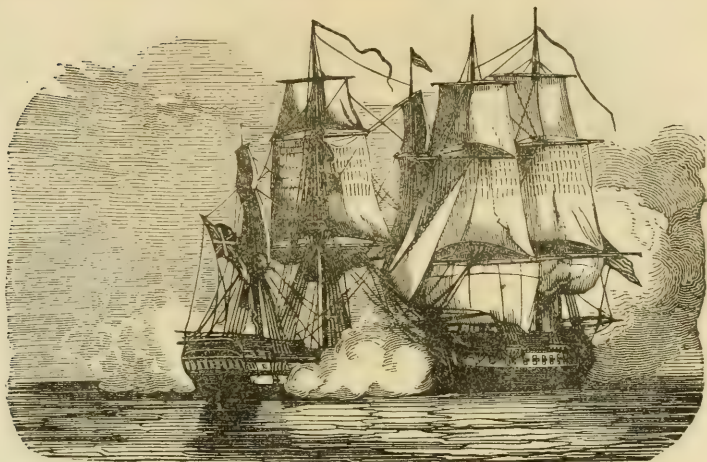
CAPTURE OF THE INSURGENTE AND VENGEANCE.



HE *quasi* war, as it is called, between this country and France, under the Directory, having commenced, a squadron under the command of Commodore Truxtun was ordered to protect the commerce of the United States in the West Indies. It was while on this service that his brightest laurels were

won, by the capture of two French frigates, each of superior force to his own ship.

On the 9th of February, the *Constellation* being alone cruising on her prescribed ground, the island of Nevis bearing W. S. W.,



CAPTURE OF THE INSURGENTE.

and distant five leagues, made a large ship on the southern board. The stranger, being approached by the *Constellation*, showed the American colours, when the private signals were shown. The chase being unable to answer, further disguise was abandoned, and, hoisting the French ensign, he fired a gun to windward, by way of challenge, and gallantly awaited the contest. This being the first time since the revolutionary war that an American ship had encountered an enemy in any manner that promised a contest, the officers and men were eager for the engagement; and the enemy were not inclined to avoid it. The ships neared, until the *Constellation*, after having been thrice hailed, opened a fire upon her antagonist. A fierce cannonade ensued, while the American was drawing ahead. She suffered much in her sails and rigging, and the foretopmast was nearly cut off by a shot. This was, in some degree, remedied by Mr. David Porter, a midshipman, who, being unable to communicate the circumstance to others, himself cut the stoppers and lowered the yard, and thus prevented the fall of the mast with its rigging. In the mean time, their superior gunnery gave the action a turn in favour of the Americans, who were at last enabled to decide the contest by two or three raking broadsides, after a combat of an hour, when the American were

round, and would again have raked her, with all their guns, had she not prudently struck.

The prize was the French frigate *l'Insurgente*, one of the fastest vessels in the world. She was greatly damaged, and had lost in all seventy men. The *Constellation* also was much damaged in her rigging, but lost only three men, wounded, one of whom, Mr. James McDonough, had his foot shot off.

The *Insurgente* carried forty guns, and four hundred and nine men. The American vessel carried thirty-eight guns, and three hundred and nine men.

It was half-past three in the afternoon when the *Insurgente* struck, and Mr. Rodgers, the first lieutenant of the *Constellation*, was sent, together with Mr. Porter and eleven men, to take possession and have the prisoners removed; but, ere this could be effected, the darkness and a rise of wind separated the ships.

The situation of Rodgers, at this period, was unpleasant in the extreme. No handcuffs were to be found, and the prisoners seemed disposed to rebel. Fortunately, Rodgers was well calculated to act with decision in such circumstances, and Porter and the men equally prompt in executing his orders. The prisoners were sent into the lower hold, and a sentinel stationed at each hatchway, with orders to shoot any one who should attempt to come upon deck without orders. Thus he was obliged to spend three days, at the end of which time he arrived at St. Kitts, where the *Constellation* had already arrived.

On the 1st of February, 1800, the *Constellation* came in sight of a strange sail, off the coast of Guadaloupe. Thinking her to be an English merchantman, Truxtun hoisted the English flag, in order to be hailed by her. This was disregarded, and sail made in pursuit, when the stranger was discovered to be a French man-of-war. The English flag was lowered, and all made ready for a desperate struggle. The enemy's ship was ascertained to carry fifty-two guns; but the vessel being very deep, Truxtun was not discouraged by her superior force, but still gave chase. The wind being light during the afternoon, it was not until evening, at eight o'clock, that they came within speaking distance. The ship then opened a fire upon them, which was returned, and kept up till near one o'clock in the morning, when the French ship made all sail to escape. Truxtun ordered to give chase; but was informed that the mainmast had been nearly



shot away, and, as it was found impossible to remedy it, the chase was given up.

Soon after the ships separated, the mast fell, and several men were lost by the accident ; among them Mr. Jarvis, a midshipman.

Mr. Truxtun, as no port to windward could be reached, bore up for Jamaica, where he arrived in safety. His antagonist, it was ascertained afterwards, arrived at Curaçoa, in a very disabled condition, and reported a loss of fifty killed, and one hundred and ten wounded. The loss of the Constellation was fourteen killed, and twenty-three wounded, of whom eleven died.

The Constellation, at this time, carried twenty eighteens on her main-deck, and the quarter-deck was supplied with ten twenty-four pound carronades. She numbered three hundred and ten men. The Vengeance, the French vessel, carried twenty-eight eighteens, sixteen twelves, and eight forty-two pound carronades. There are various statements of her crew, all between four hundred and five hundred men.

It is certain that, but for the loss of her mast, the Constellation would have brought the prize into port ; indeed, it is reported, that the Vengeance struck three times, but the Americans continuing their fire, the colours were hoisted again.

Commodore Truxtun was rewarded for this exploit by a promotion to the command of the President, forty-four guns ; and was also presented by Congress with a gold medal.

The Constellation was now given to Captain Murray ; and Commodore Truxtun, hoisting his broad pennant in the President, made another cruise on the Guadaloupe station, where he rendered eminent service in the protection of the American commerce against French cruisers, until the close of the war.



DECATUR.

THE TRIPOLITAN WAR.

IN consequence of insolent demands for tribute made on the government of the United States, and depredations on the American commerce, a war broke out, in 1801, between this country and Tripoli. In 1803, the government of the United States, determined to bring the war to a close, sent out a large squadron under Commodore Preble. One of the ships, the *Philadelphia*, commanded by Captain Bainbridge, when reconnoitering to the eastward of Tripoli ran aground, and, with her officers and crew, was captured by a fleet of the enemy's gun-boats. Decatur, then a lieutenant, proposed to his commander to retake or destroy the frigate.



PREBLE.

The consent of the commodore having been obtained, Lieutenant Decatur selected for the expedition a ketch (the *Intrepid*) which he had captured a few weeks before from the enemy, and manned her with seventy volunteers, chiefly from his own crew. He sailed from Syracuse on the 3d of February, 1804, accompanied by the United States brig *Syren*, Lieutenant Stewart, who was to aid with his boats and to receive the crew of the ketch, in case it should be found expedient to use her as a fire-ship.

After fifteen days of very tempestuous weather, they arrived at the harbour of Tripoli a little before sunset. It had been arranged between Lieutenants Decatur and Stewart, that the ketch should enter the harbour about ten o'clock that night, attended by the boats of the *Syren*. On arriving off the harbour, the *Syren*, in consequence of a change of wind, had been thrown six or eight miles without the *Intrepid*. The wind at this time was fair, but fast declining, and Lieutenant Decatur apprehended that, should he wait for the *Syren's* boats to come up, it might be fatal to the enterprise, as they could not remain longer on the coast, their provisions being nearly exhausted. For these reasons he determined to adventure into the harbour alone, which he did about eight o'clock.

An idea may be formed of the extreme hazard of the enterprise from the situation of the frigate. She was moored within half gunshot of the bashaw's castle and of the principal battery. Two of the enemy's cruisers lay within two cables' length on the starboard quarter, and their gun-boats within half gunshot on the starboard bow. All the guns of the frigate were mounted and loaded. Such were the immediate perils that our hero ventured to encounter with a single ketch, besides the other dangers that abound in a strongly fortified harbour.

Although from the entrance to the place where the frigate lay was only three miles, yet, in consequence of the lightness of the wind, they did not get within hail of her until eleven

o'clock. When they had approached within two hundred yards, they were hailed and ordered to anchor, or they would be fired into. Lieutenant Decatur ordered a Maltese pilot, who was on board the ketch, to answer that they had lost their anchors in a gale of wind on the coast, and therefore could not comply with their request. By this time it had become perfectly calm, and they were about fifty yards from the frigate. Lieutenant Decatur ordered a small boat that was alongside of the ketch to take a rope and make it fast to the frigate's forechains. This being done, they began to warp the ketch alongside. It was not until this moment that the enemy suspected the character of their visitor, and great confusion immediately ensued. This enabled our adventurers to get alongside of the frigate, when Decatur immediately sprang aboard, followed by Mr. Charles Morris, midshipman. These two were nearly a minute on deck before their companions could succeed in mounting the side. Fortunately the Turks had not sufficiently recovered from their surprise to take advantage of this delay. They were crowded together on the quarter-deck, perfectly astonished and aghast, without making any attempt to oppose the assailing party. As soon as a sufficient number had gained the deck to form a front equal to that of the enemy, they rushed in upon them. The Turks stood the assault for a short time, and were completely overpowered. About twenty were killed on the spot; many jumped overboard, and the rest flew to the main-deck, whither they were pursued and driven to the hold.

After entire possession had been gained of the ship, and every thing prepared to set fire to her, a number of launches were seen rowing about the harbour. This determined Lieutenant Decatur to remain on board the frigate, from whence a better defence could be made than on board the ketch. The enemy had already commenced firing on them from their batteries and castle, and from two corsairs that were lying near. Perceiving that the launches did not attempt to approach, he ordered the ship should be set on fire, which was done, at the same time, in different parts. As soon as this was done, they left her, and such was the rapidity of the flames, that it was with the utmost difficulty they preserved the ketch. At this critical moment a most propitious breeze sprang up, blowing directly out of the harbour, which, in a few moments, carried

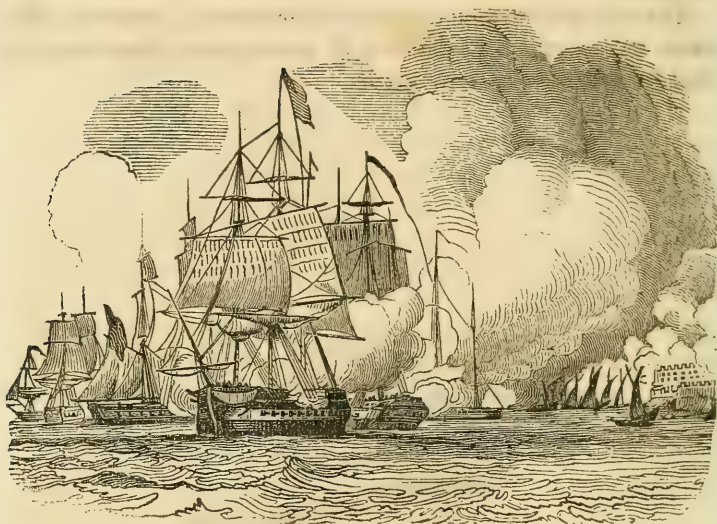
BURNING OF THE PHILADELPHIA.



them out of reach of the enemy's guns, and they made good their retreat without the loss of a single man, and with but four wounded.

For this gallant and romantic achievement, Lieutenant Decatur was promoted to the rank of post-captain, there being at that time no intermediate grade.





BOMBARDMENT OF TRIPOLI.

IN April, 1804, Commodore Preble decided to bombard the city of Tripoli. His force consisted of the frigate *Constitution*, forty-four guns, twenty-four pounders; brig *Argus*, eighteen guns, twenty-four pounders; brig *Syren*, eighteen guns, eighteen pounders; *Scourge*; schooner *Vixen*, sixteen guns, six pounders; schooner *Nautilus*, sixteen guns, six pounders; *Enterprise*, fourteen guns, six pounders; six gun-boats of one brass twenty-six pounder each; and two bombard ketches, each carrying a thirteen-inch mortar; the whole number of men, one thousand and sixty.

The enemy had on his castle and several batteries one hundred and fifteen guns, fifty-five of which were heavy battering brass cannon; the others, long eighteen and twelve pounders; nineteen gun-boats, with each a long brass eighteen or twenty-four pounder in the bow, and two howitzers abaft. He had two

schooners of eight guns each, a brig of ten, and two galleys, having each four guns. In addition to the ordinary Turkish garrison, stationed upon the fortifications, and the crews of the boats and armed vessels, computed at about three thousand, the bashaw had called in to the defence of his city more than twenty thousand Arabs. These forces were arranged in the positions best adapted for repelling an attack, and also for seizing the occasion of falling upon any detachment of the invading force which could be drawn from the main body.

The weather prevented the squadron from approaching the enemy till the 28th, when, after anchoring within two and a half miles of his line of defence, the wind suddenly shifted and increased to a gale. They were compelled to weigh and gain an offing. On the 1st of August, the gale subsided, and the squadron on the 3d, (the weather being pleasant and the wind at east,) at noon were within two or three miles of the batteries, which were all closely manned.

The commodore, observing that several of the enemy's boats had taken a station without the reef of rocks which covers the entrance of the harbour, about two miles from its bottom, resolved to take advantage of this circumstance, and made signal for the squadron to come within speaking distance, when he communicated to the several commanders his intention of attacking the shipping and batteries. The gun and mortar boats were immediately manned, and prepared to cast off. The gun-boats in two divisions of three each: the first division under Captain Somers on board No. 1, with Lieutenant James Decatur in No. 2, and Lieutenant Blake in No. 3. The second division under Captain Decatur in No. 4, with Lieutenant Bainbridge in No. 5, and Lieutenant Trippe in No. 6. The two bombards were commanded by Lieutenant-commandant Dent, and by Mr. Robinson, first lieutenant of the commodore's ship. At half-past one o'clock, the squadron stood for the batteries; at two, cast off the gun-boats; at half-past two, signal for the bombs and boats to advance and attack, and in fifteen minutes after signal was given for general action. It was commenced by the bombs throwing shells into the town. In an instant the enemy's lines opened a tremendous fire from not less than two hundred guns, which was promptly returned by the whole squadron, now within musket-shot of the principal batteries.

At this moment Captain Decatur, with his three gun-boats, attacked the enemy's eastern division, consisting of nine. He was soon in the centre of them, and the fire of grape, langrage, and musketry was changed to a deadly personal combat with the bayonet, spear, sabre, and tomahawk. Captain Decatur grappled one of the enemy's boats, and boarded with but fifteen men. He parried the blows of five Turks, who fell upon him with cimeters, so as to receive no injury, till a blow from the boat's captain, a powerful Turk, cleft his blade in two. He instantly closed with the Turk, but, overpowered by muscular strength, he fell under him across the gunnel of the boat. In this position, he drew a side-pistol and killed his antagonist. Meantime, his sergeant and a marine soldier, seeing his danger, flew to his relief, and engaged and slew the other four assailants. By this time the other thirteen men had vanquished the residue of the crew, thirty-one in number, and the boat's colours were hauled down. Captain Decatur left this boat in charge of an officer, and immediately, with Lieutenant McDonough and eight men besides himself, laid another boat on board, which he carried, after a desperate and bloody encounter of a few minutes. The fierce desperation of the Arnaout Turks, who value themselves on never yielding, made the slaughter of the enemy in these conflicts immense. The two prizes of Captain Decatur had thirty-three officers and men killed, and twenty-seven made prisoners, nineteen of whom were severely wounded.

Lieutenant Trippe boarded one of the enemy's large boats with only a midshipman, Mr. Jonathan Henley, and nine men. His boat falling off before any more could join him, he was left to conquer or perish with the fearful odds of eleven to thirty-six. In a few minutes, however, though for a moment the victory seemed dubious, the enemy was subdued; fourteen of them lost their lives, and twenty-two submitted to be prisoners, seven of whom were badly wounded. Lieutenant Trippe received eleven sabre wounds, some of which were deep and dangerous. The blade of his sword also yielded. He closed with the enemy; both fell, but in the struggle Trippe wrested the Turk's sword from him, and with it pierced his body. Mr. Henley, in this encounter, displayed a valour joined to a coolness that would have honoured a veteran. Lieutenant Bainbridge had

his lateen-yard shot away, which baffled his utmost exertions to get alongside the enemy's boats; but his active and well-directed fire, within musket-shot, was very effective. At one time he had, in his ardour, pushed forward so that his boat grounded within pistol shot of one of the enemy's formidable batteries, and where he was exposed to volleys of musketry. But, by address and courage, he extricated himself from this situation, and, so ill-directed was the enemy's fire, without receiving any injury.

Captain Somers was not able to fetch far enough to windward to co-operate with Decatur. But he bore down upon the leeward division of the enemy, and, with his single boat within pistol shot, attacked five full-manned boats, defeated and drove them in a shattered condition, and with the loss of many lives, under shelter of the rocks.

Lieutenant Decatur, in No. 2, engaged with one of the enemy's largest boats, which struck after the loss of the greatest part of her men. At the moment this brave young officer was stepping on board his prize, he was shot through the head by the Turkish captain, who, by this means, escaped, while the Americans were recovering the body of their unfortunate commander.

The two bomb-vessels kept their station, although often covered with the spray of the sea, occasioned by the enemy's shot. They kept up a constant fire and threw a great number of shells into the town. Five of the enemy's gun-boats and two galleys, composing their centre division, stationed within the rocks, joined by the boats which had been driven in and reinforced, twice attempted to row out and surround our gun-boats and prizes. They were as often foiled by the vigilance of the commodore, who gave signal to the brigs and schooners to cover them, which was properly attended to by these vessels, all of which were gallantly conducted, and annoyed the enemy exceedingly. The fire of the Constitution had its ample share in this bombardment. It kept the enemy's flotilla in constant disorder, and produced no inconsiderable effect on shore. The frigate was constantly in easy motion, and always found where danger threatened to defeat the arrangements of the day. Several times she was within two cables' length of the rocks, and three of the batteries, every one of which were successively

silenced as often as her broadside could be brought to bear on them ; but having no large vessels to secure these advantages, when circumstances compelled her to change her position, the silenced batteries were reanimated. "We suffered most," says the commodore, "when wearing or tacking. It was then I most sensibly felt the want of another frigate."

At half-past four, the wind inclining to the northward, and at the same time the enemy's flotilla having retreated behind coverts which shielded them from our shot, while our people were necessarily much exhausted by two hours and a half severe exertion, signal was given for the gunboats and bombs to retire from action ; and, immediately after, to the brigs and schooners to take the gunboats and their prizes in tow, which was handsomely executed, the whole covered by a heavy fire from the *Constitution*. In fifteen minutes the squadron was out of reach of the enemy's shot, and the commodore hauled off to give tow to the bomb ketches.

The squadron were more than two hours within grapeshot distance of the enemy's batteries, and under a constant fire. But the damage received was in no proportion to the apparent danger, or to the effect produced by the assailants. The frigate took a thirty-two pound shot in her mainmast, about thirty feet from the deck ; her sails and rigging were considerably cut ; one of her quarter-deck guns was injured by a round shot, which burst in pieces and shattered a mariner's arm, but not a man was killed on board of her. The other vessels and boats suffered in their rigging, and had sundry men wounded, but lost none except Lieutenant Decatur, the brother of the Captain Decatur, so conspicuous in this war. Several circumstances explain this impunity of our squadron. Where the engagement was close—as with the boats—the impetuosity of the attack, as well as our more dexterous use of the weapons of destruction, overpowered and appalled the enemy. The barbarians are unskilful gunners. The shower of grapeshot annoyed and discomposed them in the application of what little skill they possessed. The assailing party were so near as to be overshoot by the batteries ; especially as the managers of the guns were so fearful of exposing their heads above the parapets as easily to oversight their object.

Very different was the result of this conflict to the enemy.

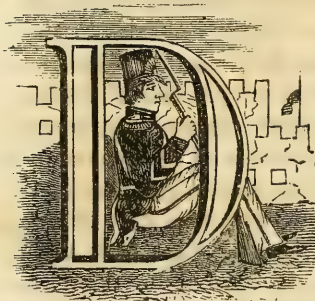
The American fire was not an empty peal, but a messenger of death in every direction. The three captured boats had one hundred and three men on board, forty-seven of whom were killed, twenty-six wounded, and thirty only fit for duty. Three other boats were sunk, with their entire crews, and the decks of their vessels in the harbour were swept of numbers. The effect on shore was not so great as in the shipping, but still such as to spread consternation. Several Turks were killed and wounded, and many guns of the fort dismounted, and the town was considerably damaged.

As might be expected, the bombardment made a powerful impression on the mind of the enemy. The burning of the Philadelphia could not fail to make the bashaw and his people apprehend something serious from the present commander. When the squadron was seen standing in, however, he affected contempt, and surveying them from his palace, observed, "They will mark their distance for tacking; they are a sort of Jews, who have no notion of fighting." The palace and terraces of the houses were crowded with spectators, to see the chastisement the bashaw's boats would give the squadron, if they approached too near. This exultation was very transient. The battle was scarcely joined, when no one was seen on shore, except on the batteries. Many of the inhabitants fled into the country; and the bashaw, it is said, retreated with his priest to his bomb-proof room. An intelligent officer of the Philadelphia, then in captivity, observes, that the Turks asked if those men that fought so were Americans, or infernals in Christian shape, sent to destroy the sons of the prophet. "The English, French, and Spanish consuls," say they, "have told us that they are a young nation, and got their independence by means of France; that they had a small navy, and their officers were inexperienced, and that they were merely a nation of merchants, and that by taking their ships and men we should get great ransoms. Instead of this, their Preble pays us a coin of shot, shells, and hard blows; and sent a Decatur, in a dark night, with a band of Christian dogs fierce and cruel as the tiger, who killed our brothers and burnt our ships before our eyes."



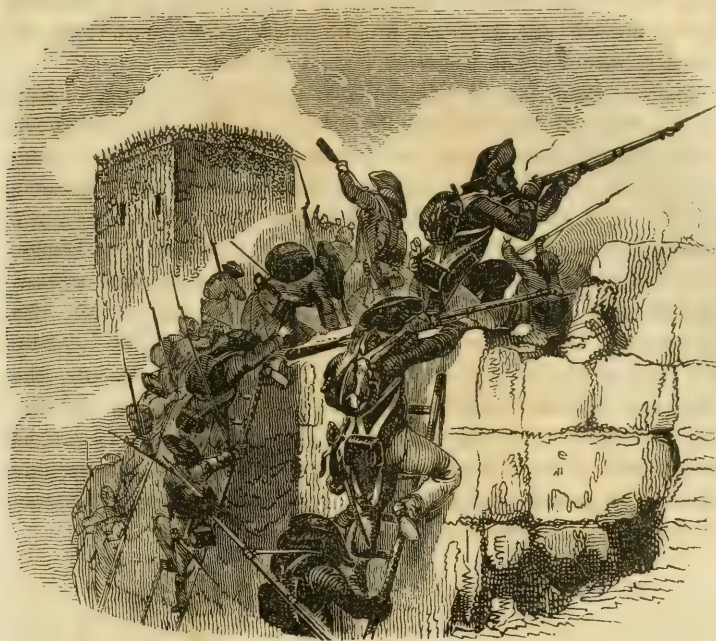
GENERAL WILLIAM EATON.

CAPTURE OF DERNE AND CLOSE OF THE WAR.



URING the months of August and September, other repeated attacks were made on the fortifications and city of Tripoli by the American squadron, which did great injury to the Tripolitans, and evinced the skill and valour of the Americans, without producing any decisive result.

It was now determined to unite a land expedition with the operations of the fleet, and the singular spectacle was exhibited of the invasion of an African state by an American force. The command of this enterprise was intrusted to General William



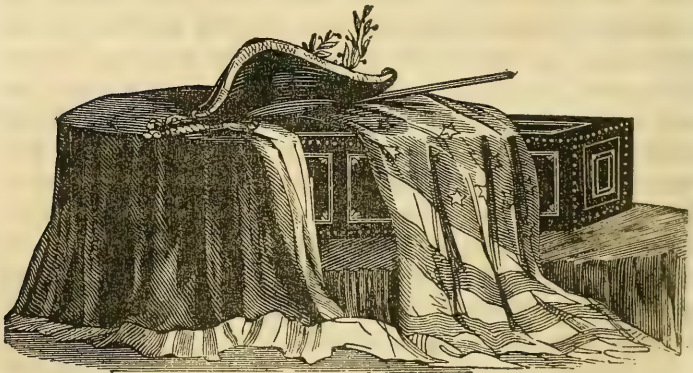
CAPTURE OF DERNE.

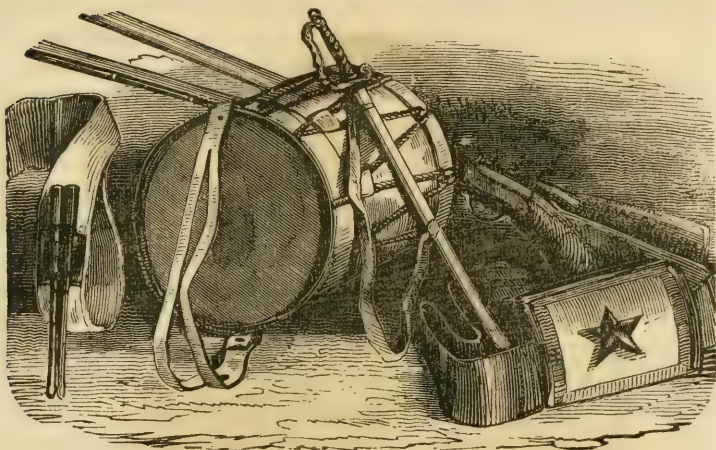
Eaton, who succeeded in forming an alliance with Hamet, the ex-bashaw of Tripoli, who had been unjustly deprived of the government and expelled by his brother, the reigning bashaw. Having met Hamet in Egypt, where he held command of an army of Mamelukes at war with the Turkish government, Eaton united his handful of troops with those of his ally, and marched from Alexandria on the 6th of March, 1805. After accomplishing a route of more than 1000 miles,—a parallel to which, in peril, fatigue, and suffering, can hardly be found but in romance,—he arrived before Derne on the 25th of April, and summoning the governor to surrender the city, he received the doughty reply, “My head or yours !”

On the 27th, Derne was assaulted by the troops of Hamet and the Americans, under the command of Eaton, and after a contest of two hours and a half was carried at the point of the bayonet. The assault was supported by the American squadron, which had previously arrived in the bay, as agreed upon. The governor and many of his adherents fled to the desert.

The Americans suffered severely in the assault, and General Eaton himself was wounded in the wrist. The inhabitants of the city submitted to the authority of Hamet.

Eaton's next exploit was the successful resistance of a siege by the army of the reigning bashaw of Tripoli, who advanced to recapture Derne, and experienced a signal defeat, being compelled to yield to the superior skill and discipline of Eaton's forces. His career of victory, however, was cut short by the arrival of the *Constitution* frigate in the harbour of Derne, with the news of a treaty of peace, on terms much less advantageous than Eaton might have dictated if left to his own resources. By this arrangement, entered into by Mr. Lear on the part of the United States, with the reigning bashaw, the American prisoners were ransomed for 60,000 dollars, and the cause of Hamet was abandoned. This treaty was by no means acceptable to the American people, who have an insuperable aversion to purchasing peace with gold, and honour the custom of ransoming prisoners with steel.





COMMENCEMENT OF THE WAR OF 1812.



N the course of the prolonged struggle between Napoleon and England, each attempted to destroy the commerce of the other. Hence the famous Berlin and Milan decrees of Napoleon, and the orders in council of the British government, making prizes of neutral ships engaged in the carrying trade. The United States suffered heavily by these proceedings, and felt injured and insulted by the imprisonment of American seamen, haughtily persisted in by the British. The consequence was, a declaration of war against Great Britain by the United States, which took place on the 18th of June, 1812.

When the war of independence was commenced, the United States contained less than four millions of inhabitants, and had neither an army, a treasury, nor a national existence. But it possessed a people united in purpose, and firmly resolved to vindicate their rights. At the opening of the war of 1812, the country had eight millions of inhabitants, great resources of wealth, and all the elements of an efficient army and navy. But the people were divided in sentiment, indisposed for war by a



GENERAL DEARBORN.

long continuance of peace, and unfit for its successful prosecution by inexperience and irresolution. Their early movements in the new contest were marked by a character of indecision corresponding with this want of preparation. It was not till near the close of the conflict that the national spirit was fully roused; and the results at that period were such as to show that, when fairly and heartily embarked in a contest, the people possess the same spirit and the same moral power which carried them so nobly through the struggle for independence.

In organizing the army, Henry Dearborn, of Massachusetts was appointed major-general and commander-in-chief. He had served in the revolutionary contest, and had subsequently borne the office of secretary of war. Thomas Pinckney, of South Carolina, also received a commission as major-general, and

Wilkinson, Hampton, Bloomfield, and Hull were among the brigadier-generals.

The army, which until the year 1808 had numbered no more than three thousand men, had then been augmented to six thousand. In January, 1812, congress had directed a force of upwards of twenty-five thousand to be raised, so that the entire force authorized by law now exceeded thirty-five thousand, including officers; consisting of twenty-five regiments of infantry, three of artillery, two of light artillery, two of dragoons, and two rifle regiments. In addition to this, the president was authorized to accept the services of any number of volunteers, not exceeding fifty thousand, who were to be armed and equipped by the United States; and a similar authority was given to him to call upon the governors of states for detachments of militia, the whole of which was not to exceed one hundred thousand.

Though apparently formidable, this force wanted many of the requisites of an efficient army. The act authorizing the raising of twenty-five thousand men had been passed so short a time before the declaration of war, that scarcely one-fourth of that number was enlisted; and these were by no means in a high state of discipline. The volunteers and militia were yet to be called for, as occasion might require, and their services were considered of very doubtful utility. Even in the revolutionary war, they had been pronounced, by high authority, a most inefficient species of force, and the long peace had certainly not increased their efficiency. The officers, however, who had the direction of the military force, had served with distinction, and high hopes were entertained of a successful campaign.

The whole navy of the United States consisted of but ten frigates, five of which were laid up in ordinary, ten sloops and smaller vessels, and one hundred and sixty-five gun-boats, only sixty of which were in commission. With this trifling force, war was commenced with a power that numbered a thousand ships afloat, and boasted herself the mistress of the ocean. The commerce and fisheries of the United States, however, had given her the elements of a navy; and if the Americans had not many ships, subsequent events proved that they had men; and that the efficiency of a navy depends more upon discipline and courage than upon the size and number of its vessels.

The plan of operations at the commencement of the war was



COLONEL MACARTHUR.

to garrison and defend the sea-board principally by occasional calls on the militia, aided by a few of the regular troops, the whole to be under the direction of the generals of the regular army, stationed at the most important points. The remaining regular troops, with such volunteers as could be procured and a portion of the militia, were to attack the British posts in Upper Canada and subdue them, with the ultimate design of invading and conquering Lower Canada.

With these views, William Hull, the governor of Michigan territory, having been appointed a brigadier-general, on the 25th of May, took command of the army destined for the invasion of Canada. On the 1st of June, he rendezvoused at Urbanna, in Ohio. His force consisted of five hundred regular troops, and twelve hundred Ohio volunteers, under the command of Colonels McArthur and Cass. Proceeding in a north-westerly direction, the army marched through a wilderness to Detroit, the capital of Michigan territory, situated on the west bank of Detroit river.

On his arrival at this place, General Hull was joined by the Michigan militia; and expecting the co-operation of General Dearborn on the Niagara frontier, he made his descent on Canada on the 12th of July. He crossed the river and established his head-quarters at Sandwich, a village on the opposite bank.

Here he issued a proclamation, offering peace and protection to the Canadians who would remain at home, and threatening extermination to such as should be found in arms associated with the Indians. He further declared that he commanded a force sufficient to "look down all opposition," which was but the van of a much greater force. In consequence of this proclamation, several hundred Canadian militia joined the Americans, or returned to their homes under General Hull's protection.

Meantime the British had collected a considerable force of Canadians and Indians, and strengthened their garrison at Malden.

Excepting some skirmishing parties under the command of Colonels McArthur and Cass, nothing was done to promote the objects of the invasion till August 8th; General Hull remaining during the interval in his encampment at Sandwich. He then gave orders for the main body to re-cross the river and retire to Detroit, abandoning the Canadians who had accepted his protection to the vengeance of their own government, and disgusting his own men with his inertness and pusillanimity.

Towards the last of July, a reinforcement of one hundred and fifty volunteers from Ohio, under Captain Brush, who had been ordered to join General Hull, arrived at the river Raisin, thirty-six miles below Detroit. Here they were ordered to await an escort from the camp. Two hundred militia, under Major Vanhorn, being sent on this service, fell into an ambuscade of Indians, and were obliged to retreat, with the loss of seventeen killed and thirty wounded.

On the 8th of August, a detachment of six hundred men, under Colonel Miller, being despatched on the same service, were attacked by a large body of British and Indians within fourteen miles of Detroit. The enemy was gallantly resisted, and compelled to retreat with a heavy loss; but the detachment returned to Detroit on the 10th, without effecting its object.

While these events were passing, General Brock, the governor of Canada, had been making active preparations for its defence. He issued a proclamation in answer to that of General Hull, reminding the Canadians of their previous prosperity and freedom under the British government, and calling upon them to join his standard. This address was not without effect. The Canadians joined the governor in great numbers, and on the 13th



COLONEL CASS.

of August, General Brock arrived at Malden, with a respectable force, just after the American troops had retired from the Canadian shore, dispirited and disgusted with their commander. On the 15th, General Brock erected batteries on the bank of the river opposite Detroit, and summoned the American general to surrender; stating that he should otherwise be unable to restrain the Indians from committing their usual atrocities. This summons was answered by a refusal, and a declaration that the fortress would be defended to the last extremity. The firing from the fortifications on both sides now commenced, and continued with little effect till the next day.

General Hull had by this time become so much alarmed as to betray his cowardice to his own officers and men, by his appearance and his hasty and irregular measures. On the 12th the field-officers had determined to arrest him, and were only prevented by the absence of Colonels Cass and McArthur, who

had been detached with 400 men on a third expedition to the river Raisin. On the 15th they received orders to return.

On the 16th, the British troops began to cross the river to the American side, three miles below the town, under cover of two ships of war. Having landed, they commenced their march towards the fort. Besides the fourth regiment of regular troops stationed in the fort, it was protected by the Ohio volunteers, and a part of the Michigan militia, placed behind the pickets where the whole flank of the British would have been exposed to their fire. The remainder of the militia were stationed in the town of Detroit, for the purpose of resisting the desultory attacks of the savages. Two four-pounders, loaded with grape, were placed on an eminence, ready to sweep the advancing columns. McArthur and Cass, on their return from the expedition on which they had been ordered, had arrived within view of Detroit, and were ready to attack the enemy on the rear. There was every reason to anticipate a victory, and the troops were eagerly expecting the commencement of the battle.

When the British columns were within five hundred yards of the American line, General Hull ordered the troops to retire into the fort, and the artillery not to fire. A white flag was then hoisted, and a British officer rode up to inquire the cause. A communication was opened between the commanding generals, which speedily terminated in a capitulation. The fortress of Detroit, with the garrison and munitions of war, were surrendered. The detachment under Cass and McArthur, and even the troops at the river Raisin, were included in the capitulation. Captain Brush, however, not considering himself bound by Hull's engagement, on being summoned to surrender, broke up his camp and retreated towards Ohio. The Canadians who had joined Hull, or accepted his protection, were abandoned to their fate, and many of them were subsequently executed as traitors.

Every circumstance which could heighten the disgrace of a surrender was found in the present instance. Hull did not even call a council of his officers. His only object seems to have been to escape from the Indian scalping-knife. When he had first entered Canada the British had at Malden but 100 regular troops, 400 Canadian militia, and a few hundred Indians. After General Brock's arrival, their whole force was 330 regulars, 400 militia, and 600 Indians. The army surrendered by

General Hull amounted to 2500 men, of whom 1200 were militia.

The indignation of the Americans at this disgraceful transaction knew no bounds. When the arrogant proclamation of Hull was contrasted with his subsequent indecisive and timid movements, and his ultimate abandonment of all manhood or decency, his whole conduct was regarded with a unanimous feeling of derision and contempt. The government, of course, brought him to trial by court martial as soon as he was exchanged. He was charged with treason, cowardice, and neglect of duty, found guilty of the two latter charges, and sentenced to be shot. In consideration of former services his life was spared. The trial did not take place till 1814, but it is mentioned in this connection in order that the whole affair may be dismissed as speedily as possible from the reader's notice.

The surrender of Hull left the north-western frontier exposed to the incursions of the British and Indians, and occasioned considerable alarm in the neighbouring states. Nearly ten thousand volunteers immediately offered their services to the government; and being placed under the command of General William H. Harrison, marched towards the territory of Michigan. This force, however, was not sufficiently disciplined to act with the efficiency of regular troops, and before any thing could be done towards retrieving the important losses of the early part of the campaign, the winter set in. Their operations were chiefly confined to incursions into the country of the Indians, who had generally become hostile.

General Van Rensselaer, of the New York militia, had command of what was called the army of the centre, destined also for the invasion of Canada. His force consisted of regulars and militia, who were assembled at Lewistown, on the Niagara river. On the opposite side of the river was a fortified British post, called Queenstown, which was the first object of attack. On the 13th of October, a detachment of 1000 men, led by Colonel Van Rensselaer, crossed the river and effected a landing under a heavy fire from the British.

In the onset, the colonel was wounded; and the troops under Colonels Christie and Scott were led on to the assault of the fortress. They succeeded in capturing it; and a reinforcement of six hundred men, under General Brock, arriving and



BATTLE OF QUEENSTOWN.

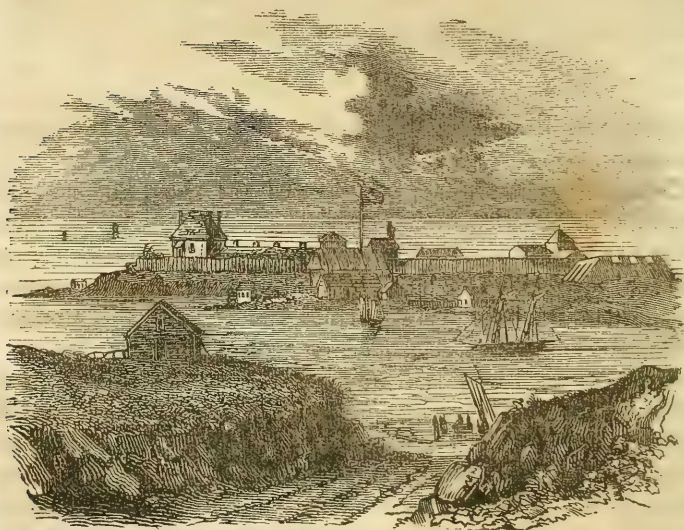
attacking the victors, were repulsed with the loss of their commander.

General Van Rensselaer had crossed the river, and now returned to bring over a reinforcement of the Americans. But his troops refused to obey the order; and the British, receiving another reinforcement, recaptured the fort after a severe engagement, in which the greater part of Colonel Van Rensselaer's detachment was destroyed.

General Van Rensselaer now retired from the service, and was succeeded by General Smyth, of Virginia. He commenced operations by issuing a proclamation addressed to the "men of New York," and couched in terms similar to those employed by General Hull. He was soon at the head of an army of 4500 men; and the 28th of November was the day appointed for crossing the river for the third invasion of Canada. The troops were embarked, but the enemy appearing on the opposite shore with a determined front, a council of war was held, and the invasion was postponed till the 1st of December, when, although 1500 of the men were ready and willing to cross the river, a second council of war decided that it was inexpedient to pro-

ceed, and the troops were again debarked. The invasion of Canada at that point was thus finally abandoned for the season.

The army of the north was commanded by General Dearborn. A part of the forces were stationed at Greenbush, near Albany, and the remainder at Plattsburgh, on Lake Champlain. This division of the army effected nothing but an incursion into Canada, in which a small body of British and Indians and some military stores were taken. The failure of the other expeditions had the effect of discouraging the general from any serious attempt on the British territory.

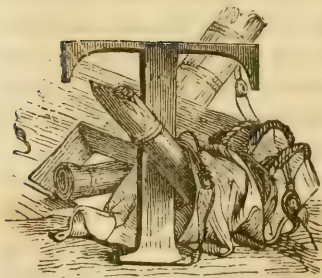


FORT NIAGARA.



CAPTAIN HULL

CAPTURE OF THE GUERRIERE.



THE disasters of the Americans in the land campaign of 1812 were compensated by several brilliant victories. The first remarkable naval victory was that of the frigate *Constitution*, Captain Hull, over the frigate *Guerriere*, Captain Dacres. The action took place on the 19th of August, 1812.

At half-past three, P. M., Captain Hull made out his antagonist to be a frigate, and continued the chase till he was within about three miles, when he cleared for action ; the chase

backed her main-topsail and waited for him to come down. As soon as the Constitution was ready, Hull bore down to bring the enemy to close action immediately; but, on his coming within gun-shot, the Guerriere gave a broadside and filled away and wore, giving a broadside on the other tack, but without effect, her shot falling short. She then continued wearing and manœuvring for about three-quarters of an hour to get a raking position; but, finding she could not, she bore up and ran under her topsails and jib, with the wind on the quarter. During this time, the Constitution not having fired a single broadside, the impatience of the officers and men to engage was excessive. Nothing but the most rigid discipline could have restrained them. Hull, however, was preparing to decide the contest in a summary method of his own. He now made sail to bring the Constitution up with her antagonist, and at five minutes before six, P. M., *being alongside within half pistol-shot*, he commenced a heavy fire from all his guns, *double-shotted with round and grape*, and so well directed and so well kept up was the fire, that in sixteen minutes the mizen-mast of the Guerriere went by the board, and her mainyard in the slings, and the hull, rigging, and sails were completely torn to pieces. The fire was kept up for fifteen minutes longer, when the main and foremast went, taking with them every spar except the bowsprit, and leaving the Guerriere a complete wreck. On seeing this, Hull ordered the firing to cease, having brought his enemy in thirty minutes after he was fairly alongside to such a condition that a few more broadsides must have carried her down.

The prize being so shattered that she was not worth bringing into port, after removing the prisoners to the Constitution, she was set on fire and blown up. In the action, the Constitution lost seven killed and seven wounded; the Guerriere, fifteen killed, sixty-two wounded, including the captain and several officers; and twenty-four missing.

The news of this victory was received in the United States with the greatest joy and exultation. All parties united in celebrating it, and the citizens and public authorities vied with each other in bestowing marks of approbation upon Captain Hull and his gallant officers and crew.



CAPTAIN JONES.

CAPTURE OF THE FROLIC AND THE MACEDONIAN.



IN 1811, Captain Jacob Jones was transferred by the secretary of the navy to the command of the sloop-of-war Wasp, mounting eighteen twenty-four pound carronades; and was despatched, in the spring of 1812, with communications from our government to its functionaries at the courts of St. Cloud and St. James. Before he returned from this voyage, war had been declared by the United States against Great Britain. Captain Jones refitted his ship with all possible despatch, and repaired to sea on a cruise, in which he met with no other luck than the capture of an inconsiderable prize.

He sailed from the port of Philadelphia on the 13th of October, 1812, with a gallant set of officers, and a high-spirited and confident crew. On the 18th of the same month, the *Wasp* encountered a heavy gale, during which she lost her jib-boom and two valuable seamen. On the following night, being a bright moonlight, a seaman on the look-out discovered five strange sail, steering eastward. The *Wasp* hauled to the windward and closely watched the movements of these vessels until daylight next morning, being the 18th, when it was found that they were six large merchant vessels under convoy of a sloop-of-war. The former were well manned, two of them mounting sixteen guns each. Notwithstanding the apparent disparity of force, Captain Jones determined to hazard an attack, and, as the weather was boisterous, and the swell of the sea unusually high, he ordered down top-gallant yards, closely reefed the topsails, and prepared for action. The convoy sailed ahead and lay to, five or six miles distant, while the sloop-of-war, with Spanish colours flying, remained under easy sail, the *Wasp* coming down to windward on her larboard side, within pistol-shot, displaying the American ensign and pendant. Upon the enemy's being hailed, he hauled down the Spanish flag, hoisted the British ensign, and opened a broadside of cannon and musketry. The fire was promptly returned by the *Wasp*, the vessels gradually neared each other, and each maintained the combat with great animation, the English vessel firing with most rapidity, but, as the result proved, with no great precision. In a few minutes after the commencement of the action, the main-topmast of the *Wasp* was shot away, and, falling on the topsail yard, across the larboard fore and foretop-sail braces, caused the head yards to be unmanageable during the continuance of the action. In two or three minutes more, the gaff and mizzen-top-gallant sail were shot away. Each vessel continued in the position in which the action commenced, and maintained a close and spirited fire. Captain Jones directed his officers not to fire except when the vessel rolled downwards, so that the shot was either poured on the enemy's deck or below it, while the English fired as soon as they had loaded, without regard to the position of their vessel, and thus their balls were either thrown away or passed through the rigging. The *Wasp* now passed ahead of the enemy, raked her, and resumed her



WASP AND FROLIC.

original position. It was now obvious that the Wasp had greatly the advantage in the combat, and Captain Jones thought the contest might be speedily decided by boarding, but hesitated because the roughness of the sea might endanger the safety of both vessels if brought in contact. As, however, the braces and rigging of the Wasp were so injured by the shot of the enemy that he was fearful his masts, being unsupported, would go by the board, and that the enemy might escape, he therefore determined at all hazards to board and thus decide the contest. With this determination he wore ship, run athwart the enemy's bow, so that the jib-boom came in between the main and mizzen rigging of the Wasp. The enemy being in a position so inviting for a raking broadside, one was promptly ordered. So closely in contact were the contending vessels, that, while loading, the rammers of the Wasp struck against the sides of the opposing vessel, so that two of the guns of the former entered through the bow of the ports of the latter and swept the whole length of the deck. At this juncture, a sprightly and gallant seaman, named Jack Lang, who had once been impressed on board a British man-of-war, jumped

on a gun with his cutlass, and was about to leap on board the enemy, when Captain Jones ordered him back, wishing to give a closing broadside before boarding. His impetuosity, however, could not be restrained, and, observing the ardour of the crew generally, Lieutenants Biddle and Booth gallantly led them on; but, to their great surprise, when they reached the enemy's deck not a single uninjured individual was found on deck except the seaman at the wheel and three officers. The deck was covered with the dying and dead, and was slippery with blood. When Lieutenant Biddle reached the quarter-deck, the commander and two other officers threw down their swords, and made an inclination of their bodies, thus affording evidence that they had surrendered.

During the early part of the action, the ensign of the enemy had been shot down, upon which a British seaman carried it aloft again and nailed it to the mast. In this state it continued floating, they not being able to lower it, until one of the United States officers ascended the rigging and tore it from its attachments. In forty-three minutes from the commencement of the action, full possession was taken of the enemy, which proved to be his Britannic majesty's sloop-of-war *Frolic*, commanded by Captain Whynyates.

On examining the berth-deck, it was found crowded with the dead and wounded, there being but an inconsiderable proportion of the crew of the *Frolic* which had escaped unhurt. Soon after Lieutenant Biddle took possession of the enemy, her masts fell by the board, so that she lay a complete wreck. The contest being now terminated, Captain Jones ordered Dr. New, the assistant surgeon of the *Wasp*, to visit the wounded enemy, and to carry with him every thing on board which could in any manner contribute to their comfort.

The force of the *Frolic* consisted of sixteen thirty-two pound carronades, four twelve-pounders on the main-deck, and two twelve-pound carronades. She was, therefore, superior to the *Wasp*, by four twelve-pounders. The officers of the *Frolic* stated that the number of men on the ship's books was one hundred and ten; but, as boats were seen plying between the *Frolic* and some of the convoy in the morning before the action, it was believed that she received many volunteers in addition to her regular crew. This belief was strengthened by

the circumstance, that one of the vessels in the convoy came alongside the Wasp next morning after her capture, and asked assistance to reef his sails, as he had but two men and a boy on board. It was intimated that he had thus diminished his crew by allowing volunteers to go on board the Frolic.

The officers, seamen, marines, and boys on board the Wasp, numbered one hundred and thirty-five, which, from the best information which could be obtained, was less in number than that of the enemy. Both vessels, however, had more men than was essential to their efficiency, and the officers of the Frolic candidly acknowledged that they had more men than they knew what to do with. It appears, therefore, that, while there was an equality of strength in the crews, there was an inequality in the number of guns and weight of metal, the Frolic having four twelve-pounders more than the Wasp.

The exact number of killed and wounded on board the Frolic could not be ascertained with any degree of precision; but, from the admissions of the British officers, it was supposed that the number killed was about thirty, including two officers; and of those wounded, between forty and fifty. The captain and every other officer on board were more or less severely wounded. The Wasp sustained a loss of only five men killed and five wounded.

A busy scene now ensued, in disposing of the dead, taking care of the wounded, and repairing the damages which the Wasp sustained during the conflict. Lieutenant Biddle and a portion of the officers and crew of the Wasp were similarly engaged on board the Frolic. While engaged in erecting jury-masts on board the latter vessel, a suspicious sail was seen to windward, upon which Captain Jones directed Lieutenant Biddle to shape her course for Charleston, or any other southern port of the United States, while the Wasp would continue her cruise.

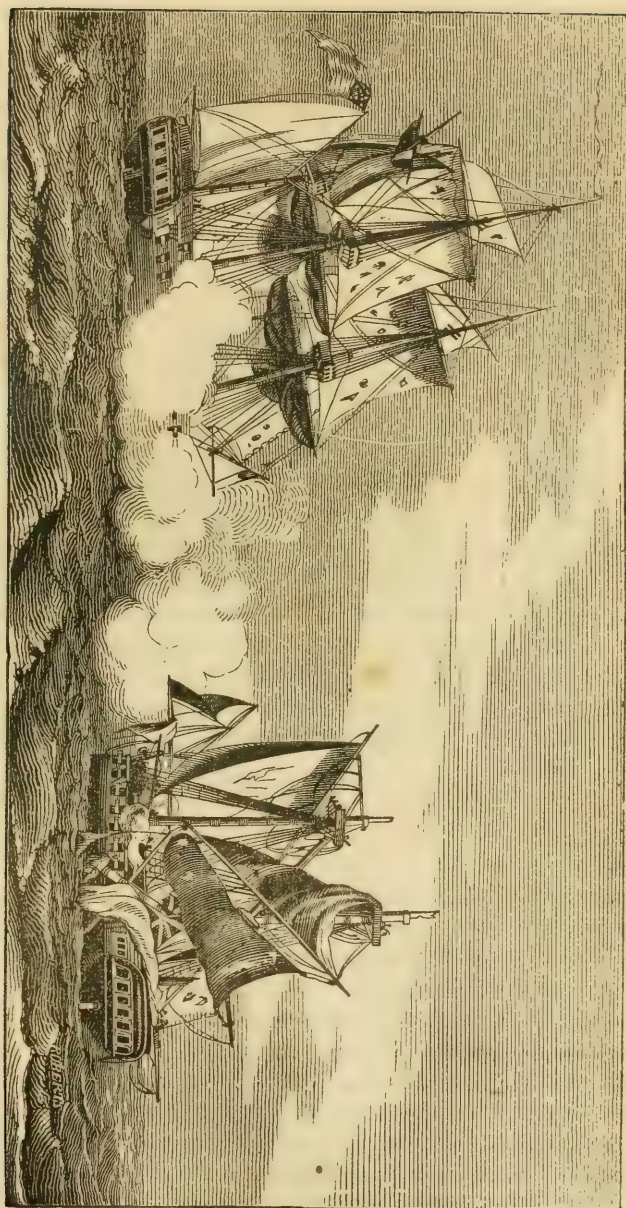
The strange sail coming down rapidly, both vessels prepared for action, but soon discovered, to the mortification of the victors of this well-fought action, that the new enemy was a seventy-four, which proved to be the Poictiers, commanded by Commodore Beresford. Firing a shot over the Frolic, she passed her, and soon overhauled the Wasp, which, in her crippled state, was unable to escape. Both vessels were thus cap-

tured and carried into Bermuda. Captain Jones and his officers were placed on parole of honour at St. George's, Bermuda, and were treated there with great courtesy, particularly by the officers of the ninety-eighth and one hundred and second regiments of British infantry. Dinners, balls, and other acts of civility were tendered with a cordiality of manner which made our officers almost forget their misfortunes.

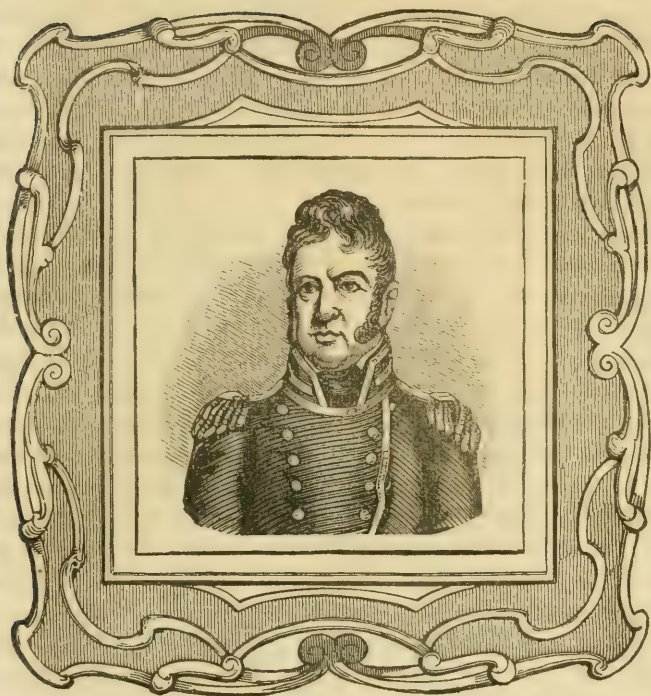
After remaining in St. George's a few weeks, a cartel was prepared, by which the officers and crew of the *Wasp* were conveyed to New York. On the return of Captain Jones to the United States, he was everywhere received with demonstrations of the highest respect and admiration for the skill and gallantry which he displayed in his combat with the enemy. In his journey to Washington, whither he was ordered by the President of the United States, he received brilliant entertainments in the cities through which he passed.

The legislature of Delaware, his native state, gave to him a vote of thanks and an elegant piece of plate, with appropriate engravings. On motion of James A. Bayard, of Delaware, the Congress of the United States appropriated twenty-five thousand dollars, as a compensation to Captain Jones, his officers, and crew, for the loss they sustained by the recapture of the *Frolic*. They also voted a gold medal to Captain Jones, and a silver medal to each of his commissioned officers.

On the 25th of October, 1812, in latitude 29° N., longitude $29^{\circ} 30'$ W., Commodore Decatur, commanding the frigate *United States*, fell in with his Britannic majesty's ship *Macedonian*, mounting forty-nine carriage guns, the odd gun shifting. She was a frigate of the largest class, two years old, four months out of dock, and reputed one of the best sailers in the British service. The action, after lasting an hour and a half, in consequence of the enemy being to windward, and having the advantage of engaging at his own distance, terminated in the capture of the *Macedonian*. The British ship lost her mizenmast, fore and main-topmasts and mainyard, and was much cut up in her hull. The damage sustained by the *United States* was not so much as to render her return into port necessary, and had Commodore Decatur not deemed it important to see his prize in, he would have continued the cruise.



UNITED STATES AND MACEDONIAN.



COMMODORE BAINBRIDGE.

CAPTURE OF THE JAVA.



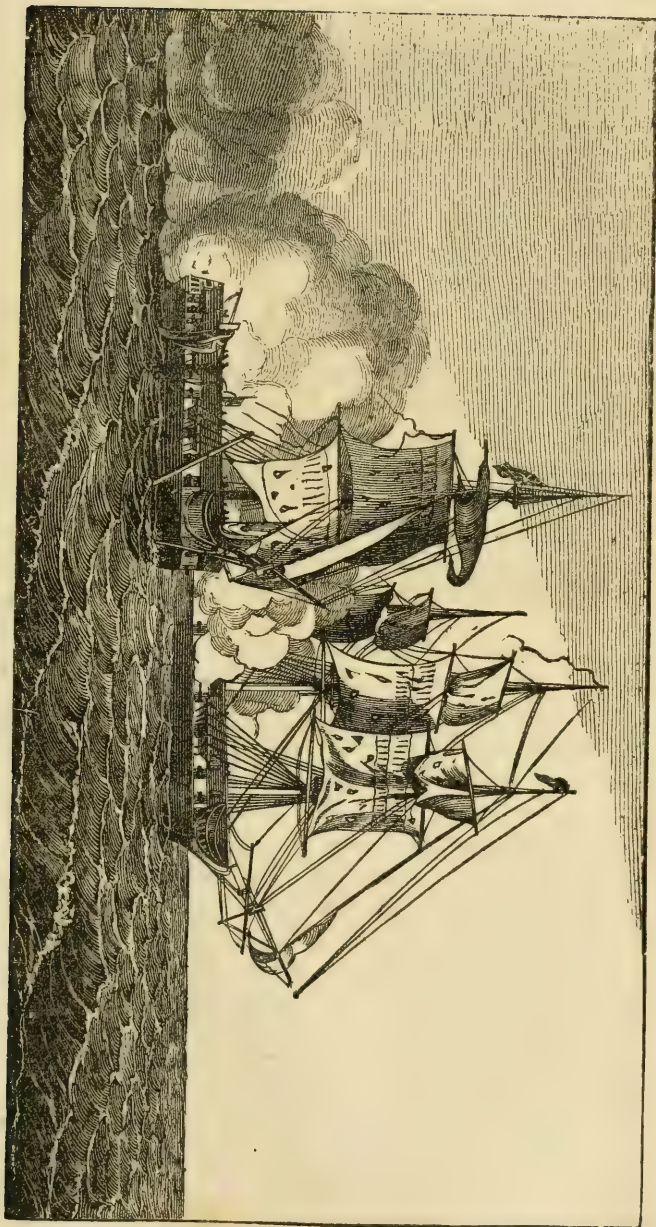
THE Constitution, under the command of Commodore Bainbridge, sailed on the 26th October, and arrived off St. Salvador on the 13th December. On the 29th, in latitude $13^{\circ} 6'$ south, and about ten leagues from the coast of Brazil, the Constitution fell in with an enemy's frigate, the Java, bound for the East Indies, with a number of supernumerary officers and seamen for the Bombay

station. The commodore, finding the frigate fairly within his reach, prepared with alacrity for action. The stranger showed English colours, and bore down, with the intention of raking the *Constitution*. Bainbridge avoided this, and the enemy having hauled down colours, and left flying a jack only, the commodore gave orders to fire ahead of the enemy to make him show full colours. This was returned with a full broadside, and a general action commenced, both ships striving to rake and to avoid being raked.

Soon after the commencement of the action, Bainbridge received a ball in the hip; and a few minutes later a shot carried away the wheel, and drove a small bolt with violence into his thigh. These injuries did not induce him to sit down, and he continued on deck, giving orders until eleven o'clock at night. The action lasted an hour and fifty-five minutes, when the enemy struck her flag, and the American commodore sent Lieutenant Parker to take possession. The *Java* was commanded by Captain Lambert, a distinguished officer, who was mortally wounded, and died a few days after the battle. The enemy's loss was not less than sixty killed and one hundred wounded. The *Constitution* lost nine killed and twenty-five wounded. The two vessels presented a striking contrast in appearance, at the close of the action: the *Constitution* "actually coming out of the battle as she had gone into it, with royal-yards across, and every spar, from the highest to the lowest, in its place," though some of them were considerably injured; while the *Java* lay upon the water an unmanageable wreck, with every spar shot away, and but a few stumps left standing. Bainbridge displayed great kindness in the treatment of his prisoners, and having destroyed his prize, he landed his captives at St. Salvador, on parole of honour not to engage in hostilities against the United States, until exchanged.

The *Constitution* soon returned home for repairs, and Bainbridge entered Boston harbour in triumph.

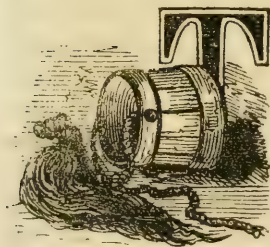






GENERAL WINCHESTER.

MASSACRE OF THE RIVER RAISIN, AND SIEGE OF FORT MEIGS.



THE people of the Western States were naturally anxious to recover the posts which had been lost by General Hull on the north-western frontier; and thus to relieve themselves from the danger of incursions from the British and Indians in that region. During the autumn of 1812, General Harrison, who had command of the army in that quarter, was principally occupied in collecting and organizing his forces preparatory to a winter campaign. Nothing of importance was effected, as we have already had occasion to remark, before the winter set in. General Winchester, with a detachment of seven hundred and fifty men, was sent forward in advance of the main body;

and while General Harrison was collecting his forces at Sandusky, with a view to join Winchester, and advance upon Malden and Detroit, the latter officer received a pressing call from the inhabitants of Frenchtown, on the river Raisin, for protection against the British and Indians assembled at Malden. Advancing within three miles of the town, on the 17th of January, he learned that the enemy had already taken possession of it. He attacked them on the 18th, and drove them from their position with considerable slaughter. On the 20th, he advanced to within twenty miles of Malden, where a British force much stronger than his own was stationed.

General Winchester's desire to afford a relief to the inhabitants of Frenchtown had thus brought his detachment into a situation of no little peril. The expedition in which he was engaged had been undertaken without the knowledge of General Harrison, who, on learning his advance, sent for reinforcements, and pushed forward with the main body in hopes of affording him relief.

The British were not slow to perceive their advantage. On the evening of the 21st of January, Colonel Proctor left Malden with six hundred British and Canadian troops, and one thousand Indians, under the command of their chiefs, Splitlog and Roundhead, and at daybreak of the 22d, commenced a furious attack upon the Americans. General Winchester's left wing, amounting to six hundred men, was protected by pickets; the right wing, one hundred and fifty in number, being exposed, was speedily defeated, and nearly the whole massacred by the Indians, who cut off their retreat. A detachment of one hundred sent out to their relief shared the same fate. General Winchester and Colonel Lewis, in attempting to rally them, were made prisoners. The left wing sustained the unequal contest with undaunted valour until eleven o'clock, when General Winchester capitulated for them, stipulating for their protection from the fury of the Indians. This engagement was violated on the next day, when a large body of Indians fell upon the wounded, tomahawked and scalped them, and, setting fire to the houses, consumed the dead and the dying in one undistinguished conflagration. In permitting this massacre, Proctor seems to have counted on daunting the courage of the Americans. But the effect was directly the reverse of what was intended. New



MASSACRE OF THE RIVER RAISIN.

volunteers, fired by these barbarities, flocked to the standard of their country, and were eventually successful in avenging their murdered fellow citizens.

General Harrison, having received considerable reinforcements from Kentucky and Ohio, advanced to the rapids of the Miami, and there erected a fort which he called Fort Meigs, in honour of the governor of Ohio. This position had been selected as a suitable post for receiving reinforcements and supplies from Ohio and Kentucky, protecting the borders of Lake Erie, and concentrating the forces intended for the recapture of Detroit, and the invasion of Canada.

On the 26th of April, General Proctor, with two thousand regulars, militia, and Indians, from Malden, appeared on the bank of the river opposite the fort, and, erecting batteries on an eminence, commenced a regular siege. The Indians crossed the river on the 27th, and established themselves in the rear of the American lines. A heavy fire of shot and shells was poured in upon the fort for several days, and on the 3d of May, a battery was erected on the left bank of the river, within two hundred and fifty yards of the American lines.

General Harrison now received a summons to surrender, which was gallantly refused. On the 5th of May, General Clay,



GENERAL HARRISON.

with twelve hundred Kentuckians, advanced to the relief of Fort Meigs, and by a spirited attack, succeeded in driving the besiegers from their works. Eight hundred of his troops having subsequently dispersed in the woods, in pursuit of the Indians, were drawn into an ambuscade, and compelled to surrender. They were saved from massacre only by the decisive interference of the Indian chief Tecumseh, who humanely restrained his followers from their usual atrocities. Of the eight hundred men only one hundred and fifty escaped, the remainder being slain or captured. General Proctor, seeing no prospect of taking the fort, and being deserted by his Indian allies, who were heartily weary of the siege, abandoned his position on the 9th of May, and returned to Malden. General Harrison, having repaired the fort, left it under the command of General Clay, and returned to Ohio for reinforcements. Nothing further was attempted in this quarter until a naval force was ready for action on Lake Erie.





COMMODORE CHAUNCEY.

CAPTURE OF YORK, AND DEFENCE OF SACKETT'S HARBOUR.



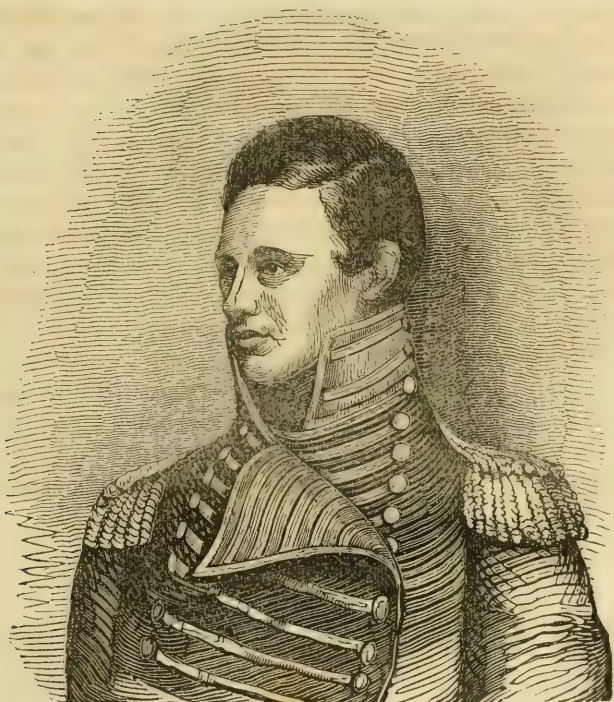
THE principal object of the campaign of 1813, on the Canadian border, was the capture of Montreal. To effect this, it was essential to gain the command of Lake Ontario. Sackett's Harbour, on the east end of the lake, near its outlet, was selected as a naval depot; and Commodore Chauncey had been occupied since the month of October, 1812, in building and equip-



SACKETT'S HARBOUR.

ying a squadron sufficiently powerful to cope with that of the enemy, which consisted of six vessels, mounting in all eighty guns. In this he was successful; and having made several captures in the autumn of 1812, he was enabled, in the spring of the next year, to acquire the complete ascendancy on the lake, confining every British ship to the harbour of Kingston.

General Dearborn had now under his command a respectable force of six thousand men, composing the army of the north; and as Montreal was in a comparatively defenceless state, and could receive no reinforcements until June, it was his proper policy to have made an immediate descent upon that city. Unfortunately his exertions were directed to a much less important object. On the 23d of April, he embarked at Sackett's Harbour with sixteen hundred men, on an expedition against York, the capital of Upper Canada, situated at the head of Lake Ontario. On the 27th he arrived at his destination, and immediately commenced a disembarkation. Remaining on board the fleet, he intrusted the command to General Pike, who succeeded in landing, though opposed by a superior force of the enemy, who, after a severe action, were driven to their fortifications. The remainder of the forces having effected a landing, the whole army advanced to the assault, carried the first battery, and was



GENERAL PIKE.

approaching the main works, when a magazine of the British, prepared for the purpose, blew up with a tremendous explosion, destroying one hundred of the assailants. General Pike was mortally wounded by a stone which was thrown up by the explosion and struck him on the breast.

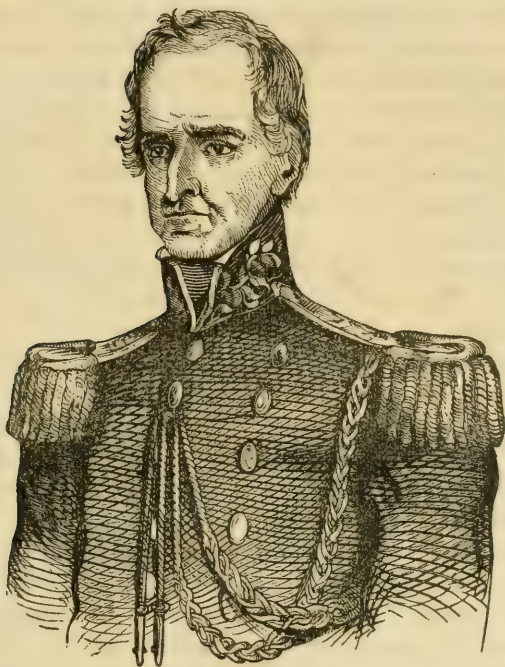
He was immediately conveyed on board the commodore's ship, and soon expired. The troops paused a few moments at this unexpected catastrophe, but soon pressed forward and gained the possession of the town. The government hall was burned, contrary to the orders of the American general. The British lost one hundred killed, and six hundred wounded and prisoners. The Americans, three hundred and twenty killed and wounded. The object of the expedition being attained, the fleet proceeded to Niagara, landed the troops, and returned to Sackett's Harbour.

On embarking for York, General Dearborn had left Sackett's

Harbour in rather a defenceless state. It was consequently attacked on the 29th of May, by the combined land and naval forces of the British, under Sir George Prevost and Sir James Yeo. General Brown, of the New York militia, had the chief command at the harbour. He detached Colonel Mills, with the militia and Albany volunteers, to oppose the enemy's landing. On their approach, the militia fired without orders, and too soon to produce any effect, and then fled. Colonel Mills was slain in attempting to rally them. General Brown succeeded in rallying about one hundred, and fell upon the enemy's rear. The British advanced towards the village, and encountering Colonel Backus, with the regular troops and a few militia, after a severe action were repulsed and driven to their boats. Lieutenant Chauncey, who had been ordered to set fire to the store-houses and barracks in case of defeat, anticipated that result, and thus caused the loss of the supplies which were essential to the success of the campaign.

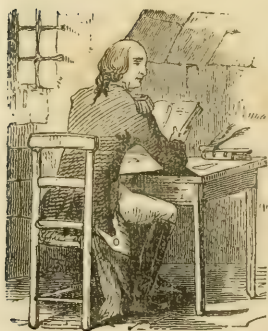


DEATH OF GENERAL PIKE.



COLONEL CROGHAN.

DEFENCE OF FORT STEPHENSON.



APTAIN CROGHAN commanded, a short time, Fort Defiance, on the Miami of the lakes; but after the defeat of General Winchester, he was ordered to Fort Meigs, upon which the enemy designed an attack. Here General Harrison commanded in person. Every disposition, both for attack and defence, was made by the conflicting parties. The siege began

on the 28th of April, and on the 9th of May following the besiegers commenced their retreat, covered with disgrace. Here

Croghan particularly signalized himself with his corps, by several handsome and brilliant charges on the enemy. For his conduct on this occasion, he received the particular notice of the commanding general; and was shortly after advanced to a majority, and was stationed with his battalion at Upper Sandusky. From this he was ordered to Fort Stephenson, twenty miles above the mouth of Sandusky river, with orders from General Harrison to destroy the stores and abandon the fort, if the enemy made his appearance. Learning that the enemy designed to attack him, he disobeyed his orders, and immortalized his fame. He laboured day and night to place the fort in a state of defence.

The necessity of cutting a ditch round the fort immediately presented itself to him. This was done; but in order to render the enemy's plans abortive, should they even succeed in leaping the ditch, which was nine feet wide, and six deep, he had large logs placed on the top of the fort, and so adjusted that an inconsiderable weight would cause them to fall from their position, and crush to death all who might be situated below.

A short time before the action he wrote the following concise and impressive letter to a friend. "The enemy are not far distant: I expect an attack—I will defend this post to the last extremity. I have just sent away the women and children, that I may be able to act without encumbrance. Be satisfied: I hope to do my duty. The example set me by my revolutionary kindred is before me—let me die rather than prove unworthy of their name."

On the first of August, General Proctor made his appearance before the fort. His troops consisted of 500 regulars, and about 700 Indians of the most ferocious kind. There were but 133 effective men in the garrison, and the works covered one acre of ground. The pickets were about ten feet high, surrounded by a ditch, with a block-house at each angle of the fort, one of which contained a six-pounder. This was the exact state of the post at the time the enemy appeared. The first movement made by the enemy was to make such a disposition of his forces as to prevent the escape of the garrison, if they should be disposed to attempt it. He then sent Colonel Elliot with a flag, to demand the surrender of the fort. He was met by Ensign Shipp. The British officer observed that General

Proctor had a number of cannon, a large body of regular troops, and so many Indians, whom it was impossible to control, that if the fort was taken, as it must be, the whole of the garrison would be massacred. Shipp answered, that it was the determination of Major Croghan, his officers, and men, to defend the garrison or be buried in it, and that they might do their best. Colonel Elliott addressed Mr. Shipp again—"You are a fine young man—I pity your situation—for God's sake surrender, and prevent the dreadful slaughter that must follow resistance." Shipp turned from him with indignation, and was immediately taken hold of by an Indian, who attempted to wrest his sword from him. Major Croghan, observing what passed, called to Shipp to come into the fort, which was instantly obeyed, and the action commenced. The firing began from the gun-boats in the rear, and was kept up during the night.

At an early hour the next morning, three six-pounders, which had been planted during the night within two hundred and fifty yards of the pickets, began to play upon the fort, but with little effect. About four, P. M., all the enemy's guns were concentrated against the north-western angle of the fort, for the purpose of making a breach. To counteract the effect of their fire, Major Croghan caused that point to be strengthened by means of bags of flour, sand, and other materials, in such a manner that the picketing sustained little or no injury. But the enemy, supposing that their fire had sufficiently shattered the pickets, advanced, to the number of five hundred, to storm the place, at the same time making two feints on different points.

The column which advanced against the north-western angle was so completely enveloped in smoke, as not to be discovered until it had approached within eighteen or twenty paces of the lines, but the men being all at their posts, and ready to receive it, commenced so heavy and galling a fire as to throw the column into confusion; but being quickly rallied, Lieutenant-colonel Short, the leader of the column, exclaimed, "Come on, my brave fellows, we will give these d——d Yankee rascals no quarters," and immediately leaped into the ditch, followed by his troops. As soon as the ditch was entirely filled by the assailants, Major Croghan ordered the six-pounder, which had been masked in the block-house, to be fired. It had been loaded



DEFENCE OF FORT STEPHENSON.

with a double charge of musket balls and slugs. The piece completely raked the ditch, from end to end. The first fire levelled the one half in death; the second or third either killed or wounded every one except eleven, who were covered by the dead bodies. At the same time, the fire of small arms was so incessant and destructive, that it was in vain the British officers exerted themselves to lead on the balance of the column; it retired in disorder under a shower of shot, and sought safety in an adjoining wood. The loss of the enemy in killed was about one hundred and fifty, besides a considerable number of their allies. The Americans had but one killed and seven slightly wounded. Early in the morning of the third, the enemy retreated down the river, after having abandoned considerable baggage.

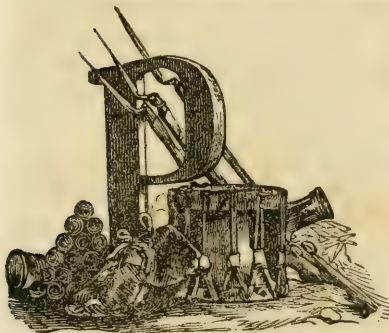
The garrison was composed of regulars, all Kentuckians; a finer company of men was not to be found in the United States, perhaps not in the world.

Notwithstanding his disobedience of orders, for the successful defence of this post, Major Croghan was raised to the rank of lieutenant-colonel.



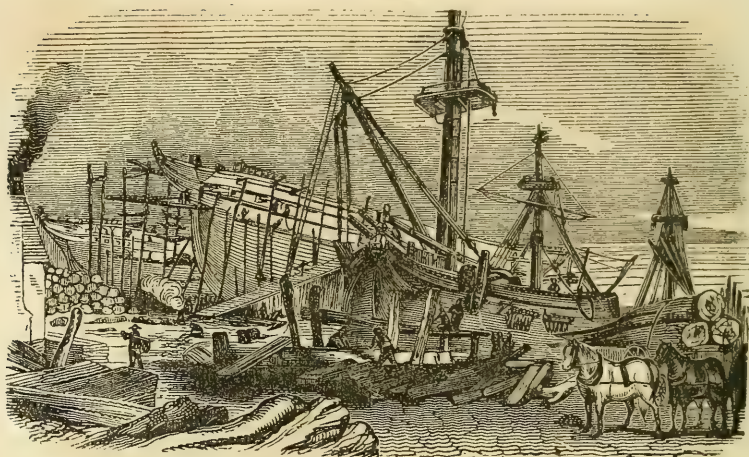
COMMODORE PERRY.

COMMODORE PERRY'S VICTORY ON LAKE ERIE.—BATTLE OF THE THAMES.



PERRY took charge of the flotilla of gun-boats stationed in the harbour of New York, early in 1812, with the rank of master-commandant. Here he remained about a year, disciplining his crews. As war had begun its ravages between

Great Britain and the United States, he sought a more active sphere; and, at his own request, he was transferred to the service on the lakes.



BUILDING OF THE FLEET ON LAKE ERIE.

In pursuance of this disposition of his services, he repaired with a reinforcement of seamen to Sackett's Harbour, on Lake Ontario, to act under Commodore Chauncey. The transportation of the seamen from the sea-board to the harbour, from its novelty to the sons of Neptune, afforded them the highest amusement, particularly as it was a "*land-cruise*" in the depth of winter.

After remaining at Sackett's Harbour some time, Commodore Chauncey despatched Perry to take charge of the squadron then fitted and fitting out on Lake Erie, and to hasten their equipments. At this time, the British fleet on that lake was commanded by Captain Barclay, an officer of high standing, rank, and skill, who had seen much service, and whose force was of superior strength to the American squadron.

Perry pursued his object unmolested by the enemy, who was continually hovering about the harbour. Having equipped and manned his vessels, he buoyed them over the bar, on which was only five feet of water, at the harbour's mouth of the port of Erie, on the 4th of August, 1813. The enemy were peaceable spectators of the scene. The next day he sailed in pursuit of them, and returned to port on the 8th, without accomplishing his object. The day following he was reinforced by several officers, and eighty seamen under Lieutenant Elliot, which gave

his squadron a full complement. He again sailed on the 12th, on a cruise, and on the 15th arrived at Sandusky Bay, in front of the encampment of the American army, commanded by General Harrison. Thence he proceeded to cruise off Malden, and the British commander thought proper to hug his force, for protection, close under the guns of the British fortifications. The inhabitants were filled with terror and consternation at the sight of the American squadron, and the astonished Indian allies of the British crown urged the British squadron to put to sea, and give battle. They, however, felt themselves not disposed to risk an engagement; and Perry returned to Sandusky Bay.

Nothing of moment happened until the morning of the 10th of September. The American squadron was then lying at anchor at Put-in-Bay, and consisted of brigs Lawrence, Commodore Perry, twenty guns; Niagara, Captain Elliot, twenty guns; Caledonia, Purser McGrath, three guns; schooners Ariel, Lieut. Packet, four guns; Scorpion, Sailing-master Champlin, two guns; Somers, Almy, two guns and two swivels; Tigress, Lieutenant Conklin, one gun; Porcupine, Midshipman G. Senat, one gun; sloop Trippe, Lieutenant Smith, one gun; in all, fifty-four guns.

At sunrise they discovered the enemy, and immediately got under way and stood for him, with a light wind at south-west. The British force consisted of ship Detroit, nineteen guns, one on pivot and two howitzers; Queen Charlotte, seventeen guns, one on pivot; schooner Lady Prevost, thirteen guns, one on pivot; brig Hunter, ten guns; sloop Little Belt, three guns; schooner Chippeway, one gun, two swivels; in all, sixty-three guns.

At ten, A. M., the wind hauled to the south-east, and brought our squadron to windward. Commodore Perry then hoisted his union jack, having for a motto the dying words of the valiant Lawrence, "Don't give up the ship!" It was received with repeated cheerings by the officers and crews. And now, having formed his line, he bore for the enemy; who likewise cleared for action, and hauled up his courses. As the hostile squadrons approached each other, suddenly a bugle was sounded from on board the enemy's ship Detroit, and loud huzzas immediately burst forth from all their crews.

As soon as the *Lawrence* came within the reach of the enemy's long guns, they opened a heavy fire upon her, which, from the shortness of her guns, she was unable to return. Perry, without waiting for his schooners, kept on his course, which induced the enemy to suppose it was his intention to board. In a few minutes, having gained a nearer position, he opened his fire. The length of the enemy's guns, however, gave them greatly the advantage, and the *Lawrence* was excessively cut up, without being able to do any great damage in return. Their shot pierced her sides in all directions, killing the men on the berth-deck and in the steerage, where they had been taken down to be dressed. One shot had nearly produced a fatal explosion; passing through the light room, it knocked the snuff of the candle into the magazine; fortunately the gunner happened to see it, and had the presence of mind to extinguish it immediately with his hand.

Their heaviest fire was directed at the *Lawrence*, and Perry, finding the hazard of his situation, made sail, and directed the other vessels to follow, for the purpose of closing with the foe. The tremendous fire, however, to which he was exposed, soon cut away every brace and bowline, and the *Lawrence* became unmanageable.

Even in this disastrous plight, she sustained the action for upwards of two hours, within canister distance, though for a great part of the time the *Lawrence* could not get more than three guns to bear upon her antagonist. It was admirable to behold the perfect order and regularity that prevailed among her valiant and devoted crew, throughout this scene of horror. No trepidation, no confusion occurred, even for an instant; as fast as the men were wounded, they were carried below, and others stepped into their places; the dead remained where they fell, until after the action. At this juncture, the fortune of the battle trembled on a point, and the enemy believed the day their own. The *Lawrence* was reduced to a mere wreck; her decks were streaming with blood, and covered with mangled limbs, and the bodies of the slain; nearly the whole of her crew were either killed or wounded; her guns were dismounted, and the commodore and his officers helped to work the last gun that was capable of being used.

Finding the *Lawrence* was incapable of further service, he

gave his vessel in charge to Lieutenant Yarnall, who had already distinguished himself by his bravery, and hauled down his union, bearing the motto of Lawrence, and taking it under his arm, ordered it to be put on board of the Niagara, which was then in close engagement. In leaving the Lawrence, he gave his pilot choice, either to remain on board or accompany him; the pilot replied, "He'd stick by him to the last," and jumped into the boat. Perry went off from the ship standing up in the stern of the boat, until the crew absolutely pulled him down among them. Broad sides were levelled at him, and small arms discharged by the enemy, two of whose vessels were within musket-shot, and a third one nearer. His shipmates who remained behind stood watching him in anxiety; the balls struck around him and flew over his head in every direction; but the same special Providence that seems to have watched over the youthful hero throughout this desperate battle, conducted him safely through a shower of shot, and they beheld with transport his flag hoisted at the masthead of the Niagara. No sooner was he on board, than Captain Elliot volunteered to put off in a boat, and bring into action the schooners which had been kept astern by light wind; the offer was accepted, and Elliot left the Niagara to put it in execution.

About this time the flag of the Lawrence came down. The event was unavoidable; she had sustained the whole fury of the enemy, and was rendered incapable of defence: further show of resistance would have proved but a most useless and cruel carnage among the relics of her brave and mangled crew. The enemy, however, were not able to take possession of her, and subsequent circumstances enabled her again to hoist her flag.

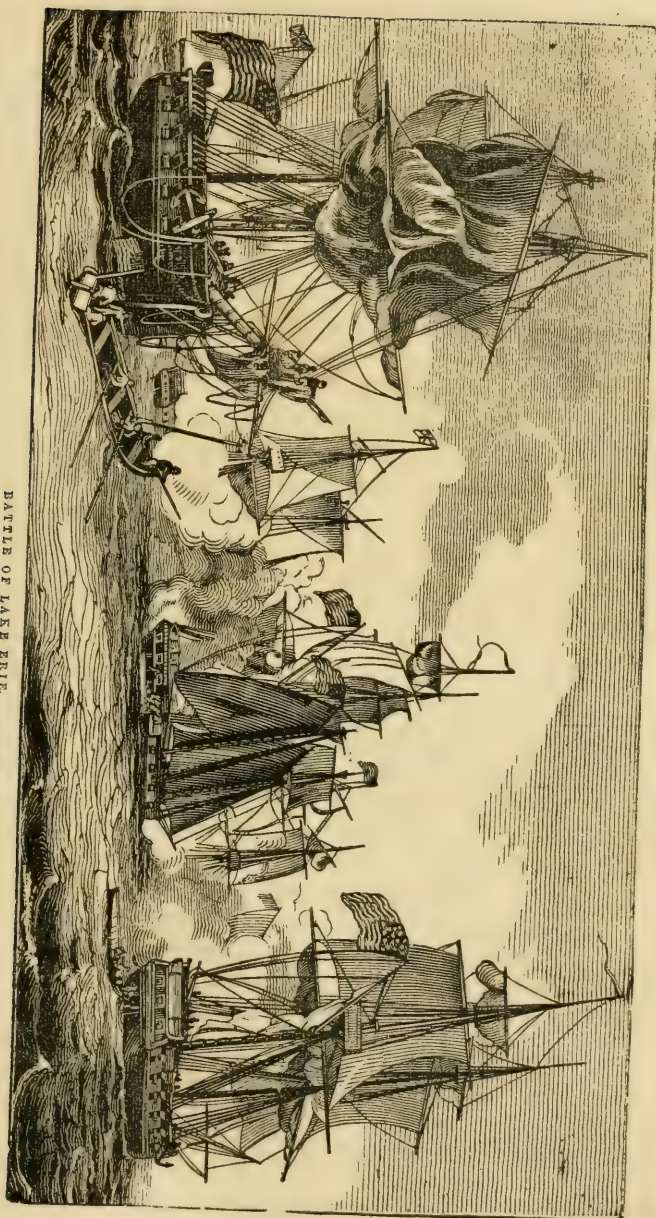
Commodore Perry now made signal for close action, and the small vessels got out their sweeps and made all sail. Finding that the Niagara was but little injured, he determined, if possible, to break the enemy's line. He accordingly bore up and passed ahead of the two ships and brig, giving them a raking fire from his starboard guns, and also to a large schooner and sloop from his larboard side, about half pistol-shot distance. Having passed the whole squadron, he luffed up and laid his ship alongside of the British commodore. The smaller vessels, under the direction of Captain Elliot, having in the mean time got within grape and canister distance, and keeping up a well-

directed fire, the whole of the enemy struck, excepting two small vessels, which attempted to escape, but were afterwards taken.

The engagement lasted about three hours, and never was victory more decisive and complete. The captured squadron, as has been shown, exceeded ours in weight of metal and number of guns. Their crews were also more numerous; the Americans were a motley collection of some good seamen, mixed with soldiers, volunteers, and boys, and many were on the sick list. More prisoners were taken than we had men to guard. The loss on both sides was severe. Scarcely any of the *Lawrence's* crew escaped unhurt. Among those slain was Lieutenant Brooks of the marines, a gay and elegant young officer, full of spirit, of amiable manners, and remarkable for his personal beauty. Lieutenant Yarnall, though repeatedly wounded, refused to quit the deck, during the whole of the action. Commodore Perry, notwithstanding that he was continually in the most exposed situations of the battle, escaped uninjured; he wore an ordinary seaman's dress, which, perhaps, prevented him from being picked off by the enemy's sharp-shooters. He had a younger brother with him on board the *Lawrence*, as midshipman, who was equally fortunate in receiving no injury, though his shipmates fell all around him. Two Indian chiefs had been stationed in the tops of the *Detroit*, but when the action became warm, so panic-struck were they with the terrors of the scene, and the strange perils that surrounded them, that they fled precipitately to the hold of the ship, where they were found, after the battle, in a state of utter consternation. The bodies of several other Indians were said to have been found the next day on the shores of the lake, supposed to have been slain during the engagement and thrown overboard.

The loss of the British in killed and wounded was estimated at one hundred and sixty, and that of the Americans at one hundred and twenty-three. On board the British fleet, the captain and first lieutenant of the *Queen Charlotte* were killed. Commodore Barclay, of the *Lady Prevost*, was severely wounded and lost his hand. He, however, did himself honour by the brave and obstinate resistance which he made. He was a fine-looking officer, then about thirty-six years of age. He had seen much service, having been desperately wounded in the battle of

BATTLE OF LAKE ERIE.



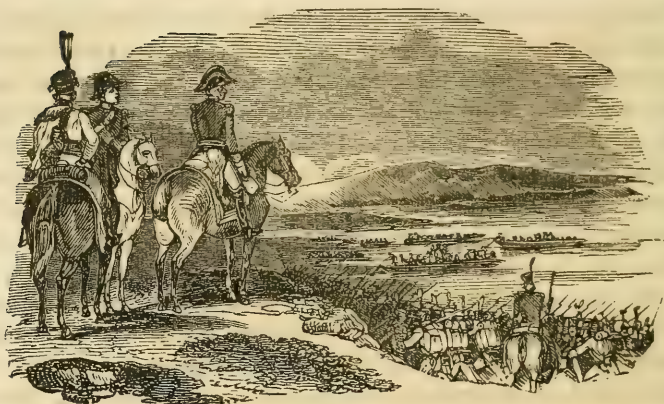
Trafalgar, and afterwards losing an arm in another engagement with the French. In the present battle, he was twice carried below on account of his wounds, and had the misfortune to have his remaining hand shot away. While below the second time, his officers came down and told him that they must strike, as the ships were cut to pieces, and the men could not be kept to their guns. Commodore Barclay was then carried on deck, and after taking a view of their situation, and finding all chance of success was over, reluctantly gave orders to strike.

In the course of the action, Perry noticed a prime and favourite sailor, who was captain of one of the guns, very much embarrassed with his piece, which, in consequence of the firelock being broken, was rather unmanageable, and rebounded. Perry approached him, and in an encouraging manner asked him, "What is the matter?" The honest tar, who had been showing signs of infinite vexation, turned round, and, as if speaking of a mistress, exclaimed reproachfully, "Sir, my gun behaves shamefully!" He then levelled, and having taken aim, raised up and squared himself, when suddenly a cannon ball struck him in the breast, passed through him, and he fell dead without a groan!

Lieutenant Yarnall, of the *Lawrence*, behaved throughout with great bravery and coolness. He was dressed as a common seaman, a red bandanna handkerchief was tied round his neck, and another round his head, to staunch two wounds which he had received. From these, the blood trickled down his face, and a splinter having passed through his nose, it had swelled to a hideous magnitude. In this frightful plight, looking like the very genius of carnage and ill luck, he came up to Perry, in the hottest and bloodiest of the fight, and announced to him that all the officers of his division were killed. Perry ordered others in their place. Shortly after, Yarnall returned with a repetition of the dismal tidings that all the officers were shot down! "Then, sir," said Perry, "you must endeavour to make out by yourself; I have no more to furnish you with."

Soon after the victory on Lake Erie, the president of the United States appointed Oliver H. Perry to the rank of captain in the navy.

The commodore was presented with the freedom of the cities of New York and Albany.



HARRISON CROSSING LAKE ERIE.

The thanks of congress were voted to the commodore, his officers, seamen, and marines; and medals were presented to him and his officers.

The thanks of the senate of Pennsylvania, with medals also, were voted to the commodore, and those brave men who served under him.

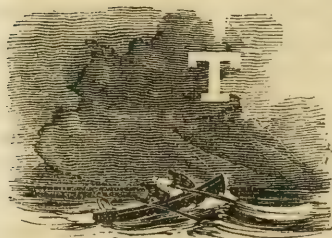
Rejoicings, illuminations, and bonfires were exhibited through all parts of the United States.

On receiving intelligence of Perry's success, General Harrison, who had been reinforced by a strong body of Kentucky militia under Governor Shelby, embarked on the lake, and soon arrived at Malden. This post had been abandoned by the British, who had ascended the river Thames as far as the Moravian villages. Here they were overtaken by General Harrison, on the 5th of October, who succeeded in bringing them to action, and gained a complete victory. General Proctor saved himself by flight, leaving his camp equipage and papers. Six hundred of the British were made prisoners. The Indians are said to have borne the brunt of the battle and fallen in great numbers. Their great chief, Tecumseh, was among the slain in the battle of the Thames, having been shot by Colonel Johnson. This victory restored to the Americans all the posts which had been surrendered by General Hull.



CAPTAIN LAWRENCE.

BATTLE BETWEEN THE HORNET AND PEACOCK.



THE following account of this celebrated action is extracted from Captain Lawrence's official despatch to the secretary of the navy, dated March 19, 1813:

After cruising off the coast of Surinam, from the 5th to the 22d of February, without meeting a vessel, I stood for Demarara, with an intention, should I not be fortunate on that station, to run through the West Indies, on my way to the United States. But, on the morning of the 24th, I discovered a brig to leeward, to which I gave chase;

ran into quarter less four, and, not having a pilot, was obliged to haul off—the fort at the entrance of Demarara river at this time bearing south-west, distance about two and a half leagues. Previously to giving up the chase, I discovered a vessel at anchor without the bar, with English colours flying, apparently a brig-of-war. In beating round Corobano bank, in order to get at her, at half-past three, P. M., I discovered another sail on my weather quarter, edging down for us. At twenty minutes past four she hoisted English colours, at which time we discovered her to be a large man-of-war brig, beat to quarters, and cleared ship for action; kept close by the wind, in order, if possible, to get the weather-gage. At ten minutes past five, finding I could weather the enemy, I hoisted American colours and tacked. At twenty minutes past five, in passing each other, exchanged broadsides within half pistol-shot.

Observing the enemy in the act of wearing, I bore up, received his starboard broadside, ran him close on board on the starboard quarter, and kept up such a heavy and well-directed fire, that in less than fifteen minutes he surrendered, being literally cut to pieces, and hoisted an ensign, union down, from his fore rigging, as a signal of distress. Shortly after, his main-mast went by the board, despatched Lieutenant Shubrick on board, who soon returned with her first lieutenant, who reported her to his Britannic majesty's late brig Peacock, commanded by Captain William Peake, who fell in the latter part of the action; that a number of her crew were killed and wounded, and that she was sinking fast, having then six feet of water in her hold; despatched the boats immediately for the wounded, and brought both vessels to anchor. Such shot-holes as could be got at were then plugged, her guns thrown overboard, and every possible exertion used to keep her afloat, until the prisoners could be removed by pumping and bailing, but without effect, and she unfortunately sunk in five and a half fathoms water, carrying down thirteen of her crew and three of my brave fellows, viz.: John Hart, Joseph Williams, and Hannibal Boyd. Lieutenant Conner, Midshipman Cooper, and the remainder of the Hornet's crew, employed in removing the prisoners, with difficulty saved themselves by jumping in a boat that was lying on her bows as she went down. Four men of the thirteen mentioned were so fortunate as to gain the foretop,

HORNET AND PEACOCK



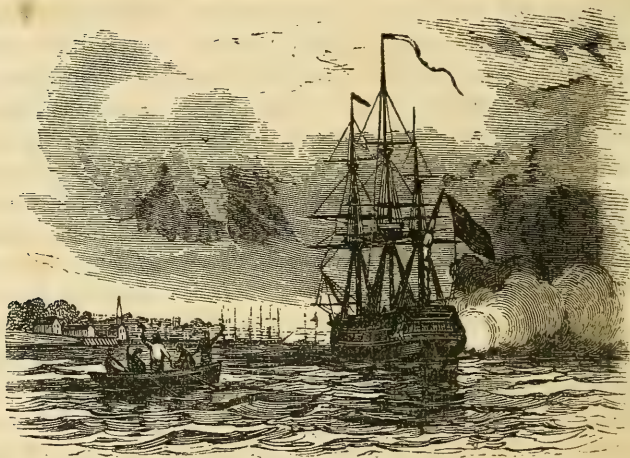
and were afterwards taken off by the boats. Previous to her going down, four of her men took to her stern boat, which had been much damaged during the action, which I hope reached the shore in safety; but, from the heavy sea running at the time, the shattered state of the boat, and the difficulty of landing on the coast, I much fear they were lost. I have not been able to ascertain from her officers the exact number killed. Captain Peake and four men were found dead on board. The master, one midshipman, carpenter, and captain's clerk, and twenty-nine seamen were wounded, most of them very severely, three of whom died of their wounds after being removed, and nine drowned. Our loss was trifling in comparison. John Place, killed; Samuel Coulsan and Joseph Dalrymple, slightly wounded; George Coffin and Lewis Todd, severely burnt by the explosion of a cartridge. Todd survived only a few days. Our rigging and sails were much cut; one shot through the fore-mast, and the bowsprit slightly injured. Our hull received little or no damage. At the time the Peacock was brought to action, the *L'Espegle*, (the brig mentioned above as being at anchor,) mounting sixteen two-and-thirty-pound carronades and two long nines, lay about six miles in shore, and could plainly see the whole of the action. Apprehensive that she would beat out to the assistance of her consort, such exertions were made by my officers and crew in repairing damages, &c., that by nine o'clock the boats were stowed, a new set of sails bent, and the ship completely ready for action. At two, A. M., got under way, and stood by the wind to the northward and westward under easy sail.

On mustering next morning, found that we had two hundred and seventy-seven souls on board, including the crew of the American brig *Hunter*, of Portland, taken a few days before by the Peacock; and, as we had been on two-thirds' allowance of provisions for some time, and had but three thousand four hundred gallons of water on board, I reduced the allowance to three pints a man, and determined to make the best of my way to the United States.

The Peacock was deservedly styled one of the finest vessels of her class in the British navy, probably about the tonnage of the *Hornet*. Her beam was greater by five inches, but her extreme length not so great by four feet. She mounted six-

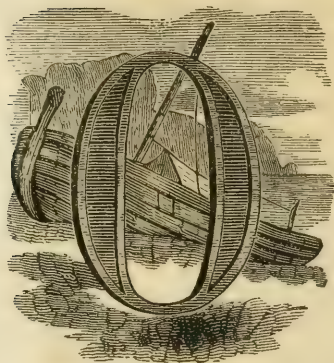
teen twenty-four pound carronades, two long nines, one twelve-pound carronade on her top-gallant-forecastle, as a shifting gun, and one four or six pounder, and two swivels mounted aft. I find by her quarter bill that her crew consisted of one hundred and thirty-four men, four of whom were absent in a prize.

The cool and determined conduct of my officers and crew during the action, and their almost unexampled exertions afterwards, entitle them to my warmest acknowledgments, and I beg leave most earnestly to recommend them to the notice of the government.



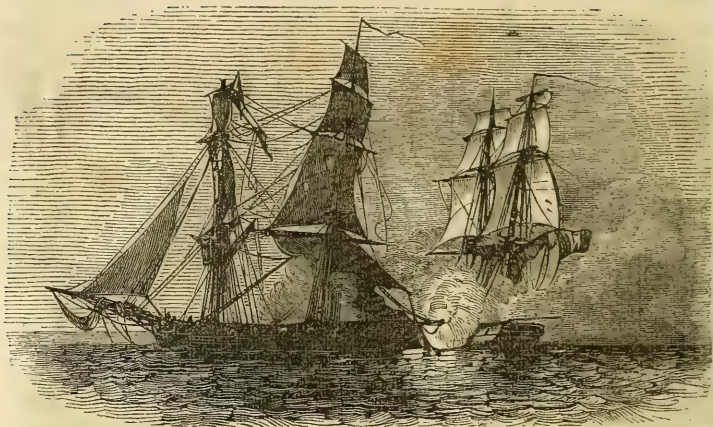


BATTLE BETWEEN THE ENTERPRISE AND THE BOXER.



ON the 1st of September, the Enterprise, Captain Burroughs, sailed from Portsmouth on a cruise. On the 5th, early in the morning, they espied a brig in shore, getting under way. They reconnoitred her for a while to ascertain her character, of which they were soon informed by her hoisting three British ensigns, and firing a shot as a challenge. The En-

terprise then hauled upon a wind, stood out of the bay, and prepared for action. A calm for some time delayed the encounter; it was succeeded by a breeze from the south-west, which gave our vessel the weather-gage. After manœuvring for a while to



ENTERPRISE AND BOXER.

the windward, in order to try her sailing with the enemy, and to ascertain his force, the *Enterprise*, about three, P. M., shortened sail, hoisted three ensigns, fired a gun, tacked, and ran down with an intention to bring him to close quarters. When within half pistol-shot, the enemy gave three cheers, and commenced the action with his starboard broadside. The cheers and the broadside were returned on our part, and the action became general. In about five minutes after the battle had commenced, the gallant Burrows received a musket-ball in his body and fell; he, however, refused to be carried below, but continued on deck through the action. The active command was then taken by Lieutenant McCall, who conducted himself with great skill and coolness. The enemy was out-manœuvred and cut up; his maintopmast and topsail-yard shot away; a position gained on his starboard bow, and a raking fire kept up, until his guns were silenced and he cried for quarters, saying, that as his colours were nailed to the mast he could not haul them down. The prize proved to be his Britannic majesty's brig *Boxer*, of fourteen guns. The number of her crew is a matter of conjecture and dispute. Sixty-four prisoners were taken, seventeen of whom were wounded. How many of the dead were thrown into the sea during the action it is impossible to say; the British return only four as killed; courtesy forbids us to question the veracity of an officer on mere presumption; but it is ever the

natural wish of the vanquished to depreciate their force; and, in truth, we have seen with regret various instances of disingenuousness on the part of the enemy, in the statements of our naval encounters. But we will not enter into disputes of this kind. It is enough that the enemy entered into the battle with a bravado at the mast-head, and a confidence of success; this either implied a consciousness of his own force, or a low opinion of his antagonist; in either case he was mistaken. It is a fruitless task to vindicate victories against the excuses of the vanquished; sufficient for the victor is the joy of his triumph; he should allow the enemy the consolation of accounting for it.

We turn gladly from such an idle discussion to notice the last moments of the worthy Burrows. There needs no elaborate pencil to impart pathos and grandeur to the death of a brave man. The simple anecdotes, given in simple terms by his surviving comrades, present more striking pictures than could be wrought up by the most refined attempts of art. "At twenty minutes past three, P. M.," says one account, "our brave commander fell, and while lying on the deck, refusing to be carried below, raised his head and requested that *the flag might never be struck*." In this situation he remained during the rest of the engagement, regardless of bodily pain; regardless of the life-blood fast ebbing from his wound; watching with anxious eye the vicissitudes of battle; cheering his men by his voice, but animating them still more by his glorious example. When the sword of the vanquished enemy was presented to him, we are told that he clasped his hands and exclaimed, "I am satisfied, I die contented." He now permitted himself to be carried below, and the necessary attentions were paid to save his life, or alleviate his sufferings. His wound, however, was beyond the power of surgery, and he breathed his last within a few hours after the victory.

The commander of the Boxer, Captain Samuel Blythe, was killed early in the action, by a cannon-ball: had he lived, he might have defended his ship more desperately, but it is not probable with more success. He was an officer of distinguished merit; having received a sword from government for his good conduct under Sir James L. Yeo, in the capture of Cayenne. He was also one of the pall-bearers of our lamented Lawrence, when buried at Halifax. It was his fate now to receive like

courtesy at the hands of his enemy. His remains, in company with those of the brave Burrows, were brought to Portland, where they were interred with military honours. It was a striking and affecting sight, to behold two gallant commanders, who had lately been arrayed in deadly hostility against each other, descending into one quiet grave, there to mingle their dust peacefully together.



OPERATIONS ON THE NORTHERN FRONTIER
IN 1814.

EARLY in the spring of 1813 an offer was made by the emperor of Russia of his mediation, as the common friend of the United States and Great Britain, for the purpose of facilitating a peace between them. The president, having accepted this offer, commissioned John Quincy Adams, then minister of the United States at St. Petersburg, Albert Gallatin, and James A. Bayard, with the requisite powers to conclude a treaty of peace with persons clothed with similar powers on the part of Great Britain.

During the session of congress, which commenced in December, 1813, a communication was received from the British government, declining to treat under the mediation of Russia, and proposing a direct negotiation in London or Gottenburg. This proposition was accepted, and the latter place appointed for the meeting, which was afterwards transferred to Ghent; and Henry Clay and Jonathan Russell were added to the commissioners who had already gone to Europe.

For the purpose of increasing the force of the regular army, several acts of congress were passed, offering large bounties to recruits, and providing liberally for the pay, rations, and clothing of the troops. A loan of twenty-five millions of dollars, and the issue of treasury notes for five millions, were also authorized. Provision was also made for the increase and better organization of the navy, and for the defence of the seaboard. An embargo, which had been laid to prevent the trade under British licenses, was repealed in April, 1814.

The fall of Napoleon, having left Great Britain at peace with all nations, except the United States, enabled that power

to direct the whole of her disposable force against the Americans. This circumstance, increasing the perils of the campaign, rendered it necessary to make greater exertions and sacrifices for the defence of the country.

The spring passed away without any important operations on either side. The army, which had wintered at French Mills, left that station in the early part of the spring, one division, under General Wilkinson, proceeding to Plattsburg, and the remainder, under General Brown, returning to Sackett's Harbour. In March, General Wilkinson entered Canada, and made an attack on a party of the British stationed in a large stone building called La Cole Mill. He was defeated with a heavy loss, and, being soon afterwards superseded, his command was given to General Izard.

On the 5th of May, the British made a descent on Oswego, and succeeded in capturing and destroying the fort and military stores at that place; after which they returned to Kingston.

Early in July, General Brown crossed the Niagara river and invested Fort Erie, which was surrendered without opposition, and the prisoners, one hundred and thirty-seven in number, were sent to Buffalo. The army then advanced to Chippewa, where a large body of the British were posted; and, on the 5th of July, a severe engagement took place, in which the British lost upwards of three hundred killed and wounded, two hundred being left dead on the field. The American loss was sixty killed, and two hundred and sixty-eight wounded and missing. The British then retired to Fort George, and General Brown took post at Queenstown, to await reinforcements from Sackett's Harbour.

The expected reinforcements, however, being blockaded by a British fleet off the harbour, did not arrive. Detachments from the army were occupied with unimportant skirmishes until July 25th, when the battle of Bridgewater, near the cataract of Niagara, took place.

The British advanced to the attack under General Drummond. The first brigade, under General Scott, with Towson's artillery and a body of cavalry, composed the advance of the Americans, and, engaging the enemy at six o'clock in the evening, sustained the attack without support for an hour. General Rip-



BATTLE OF LUNDY'S LANE.

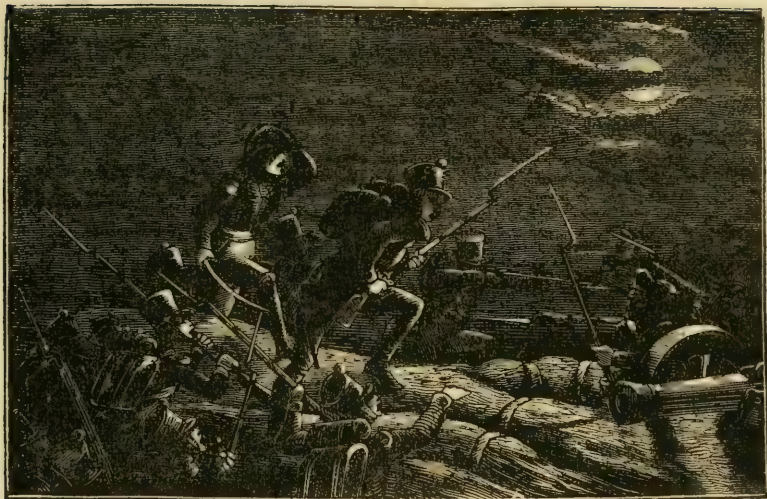
ley, with fresh troops, then arriving, relieved General Scott, and his exhausted brigade formed a reserve on the rear. The British artillery had taken post on an eminence at the head of Lundy's Lane, and poured a most deadly fire on the Americans. It became necessary to dislodge them or retreat. "Will you advance and capture that battery?" said the commanding general to Colonel Miller. "I will try, sir," was the modest reply of the colonel, which afterwards became the motto of his regiment. He advanced coolly and steadily to his object, amidst a tremendous fire of artillery, and at the point of the bayonet carried the artillery and the height. The guns were turned upon the enemy. Several attempts were made to regain them without success. The principal force of both parties were directed to this point, and a most sanguinary contest took place, which resulted in the defeat of the British. The loss on each side was about eight hundred. Generals Brown and Scott being both severely wounded in the battle, the command devolved upon General Ripley, who took post at Fort Erie. General Gaines having arrived soon after, and taken the command, was attacked by General Drummond, at the head of five thousand troops, who formally invested the place on the 4th of



COLONEL MILLER.

August. Having advanced their lines to within four hundred yards of the fort, the enemy commenced a brisk cannonade on the 13th, which continued the whole of that and the next day. The fire was steadily returned by the Americans. On the night of the 14th, an assault was made by the British, which resulted in their repulse, with the loss of nine hundred men—the Americans losing but eighty-four.

On the 2d of September, General Brown had so far recovered from his wounds as to be able to resume the command. The British main body, under General Drummond, was encamped two miles from Fort Erie, while his works were advanced to within four hundred yards of the American lines. One of his brigades, with a detachment of artillery, was stationed at this advance. On the 17th, Generals Porter, Miller, and Brown,



DEFENCE OF FORT ERIE.

with large detachments, made a sortie, with a view to cut off the British advanced posts from the main body. Within thirty minutes the whole line of the enemy's intrenchments were in possession of the Americans. The works were destroyed, and, strong reinforcements of the enemy coming up, the Americans retired within their lines. The American loss was seventy-nine killed and four hundred and thirty-two wounded and missing. The British loss, five hundred killed and wounded, and three hundred and eighty-five captured. The result of this gallant sortie completely discouraged the enemy, who, on the night of the 21st, raised the siege, which had continued forty-nine days, and retired to his intrenchments behind the Chipewawa.

On the 9th of October, General Izard arrived with reinforcements from Plattsburg and took the command, General Brown retiring to Sackett's Harbour. General Izard, deeming it inexpedient to attempt any further offensive operations in this quarter, demolished the works at Fort Erie, and removed the troops to Buffalo.

The next attempt of the British was a descent upon Plattsburg. This was the principal military and naval depôt for the

army of the north and the flotilla on Lake Champlain. Its defence was intrusted to General Macomb, with one thousand five hundred regulars, and the neighbouring militia to be called in as occasion might require. On the 1st of September, General Prevost, with fourteen thousand men, advanced to Champlain, within fifteen miles of the American lines. Having called in the militia, who flocked to his standard from the neighbouring country in great numbers, General Macomb made every exertion to impede the approach and prepare for the attack of the enemy. The bridges on his line of march were broken up, and every possible impediment thrown in the way of his passage, and the fortifications at Plattsburg were strengthened by additional breastworks and batteries.

On the 6th of September, the British advance was met at Batemantown, six miles from Plattsburg, by a corps of seven hundred militia, under General Mooers. After some slight skirmishing, the militia discovered the New York state dragoons in red uniform, reconnoitering the heights on their rear, and mistaking them for British troops in the act of surrounding their party, they broke and fled in every direction. On the same day, the British, commanded by Sir George Prevost in person, entered Plattsburg. The Americans retired to the south side of the Saranac river, tore up the bridges and made breastworks of them, and guarded the ford-ways, while the British strengthened their works and prepared for the attack.

While these operations were going forward on land, the American squadron on Lake Champlain lay at anchor in a bay two miles distant, awaiting the arrival of the British fleet, which was to assist in the simultaneous attack about to take place on land and water. On the morning of the 11th, the enemy's ships appeared, bearing down upon the Americans under easy sail, and the action immediately commenced. It was a hard-fought battle, and it terminated in a manner highly honourable to the courage and resolution of Commodore McDonough and his brave associates. The fleets were engaged two hours and twenty minutes. Nearly all the British ships were sunk or taken; and, when the action closed, there was not a mast standing in either squadron to which a sail could be attached. When the flag-ship of the British, having lost its commander, Commodore Downie, struck her colours, the shores resounded with



BATTLE OF LAKE CHAMPLAIN.

the acclamations of the American troops and citizens. The British, seeing their fleet completely conquered, were dispirited and dismayed.

The American force consisted of the *Saratoga*, twenty-six guns; *Eagle*, twenty; *Ticonderoga*, seventeen; *Preble*, seven; six galleys of two guns, and four of one—in all eighty-six guns and eight hundred and twenty men. The British had the *Confiance*, thirty-nine guns; *Linnet*, sixteen; *Cherub*, twelve; *Finch*, eleven; five galleys of two guns each, and eight of one gun each—making in all ninety-five guns and one thousand and twenty men. American loss, fifty-two killed and fifty-eight wounded. British loss, eighty-four killed and one hundred and ten wounded. The old story! The result was always about in the same proportion when the fighting was done on the water.

At the moment when the naval action had commenced, the British, from their works on shore, had opened a heavy fire of shot, shells, and rockets upon the American lines. Under cover of this fire, three desperate efforts were made to cross the *Saranac*, for the purpose of carrying the American lines by assault, all which were met and successfully resisted. One ford, guarded by militia, was passed, and a body of the British being drawn into the woods, were so severely handled that they

were compelled to recross the river with considerable loss. At six o'clock in the evening, the British batteries were silenced; and, during the night, the whole army decamped with precipitation, leaving their sick and wounded, and most of their camp equipage, intrenching tools, and provisions, behind them. This retreat was so sudden and unexpected, that it was not discovered by the American general till the British were eight miles from the late scene of action. Indeed, he had little reason to suppose that a disciplined and well-appointed army, "Wellington's veterans," numbering some fourteen thousand, would have fled so incontinently from one thousand and five hundred American regulars and three thousand militia. The hard fighting on the lake must have had what it is the fashion to call a "moral effect." In the phrase of Monsieur De Bourrienne, it "*demoralized*" them. Their commander was dismissed and disgraced by his government.



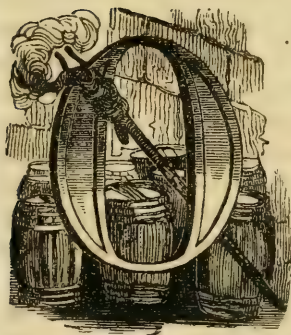
COMMODORE McDONOUGH.

This battle terminated the active warfare on the Canada border, the general result of which conveys to Americans the important lesson that the genius of their institutions, and the character of the people, are as uncongenial to all schemes of foreign conquest as they are favourable to the resolute and unflinching defence of their own soil. The militia who displayed so much

bravery near their own firesides could never be brought to enter heartily into the scheme of invading the British territory. All efforts in that quarter resulted in the same "lame and impotent conclusion." Even the splendid achievement at Chippewa, Bridgewater, and Fort Erie, produced nothing in the way of conquest; while the defence of Fort Sandusky and Plattsburg brought the solid advantages of immunity from foreign oppression and savage warfare.



COMMODORE BARNEY.

ATTACK ON WASHINGTON AND
BALTIMORE.

ON the 10th of August, 1814, a British fleet of sixty sail, under Admiral Cochrane, with a land force of six thousand men, under General Ross, entered the Chesapeake bay, and proceeded to the mouth of the Potomac, when a squadron under Commodore Gordon entered that river, and advanced towards Alexandria. The principal part of the fleet, with the land forces, continued

their course to the mouth of the Patuxent, and entered that river on the 18th. Commodore Barney, who commanded the American flotilla of gun-boats on that river, to prevent their falling into the hands of the enemy, blew them up, and proceeded to join General Winder.

The British, on their advance up the Patuxent, learning the defenceless state of Washington, determined on an expedition to that city. Five thousand men, under General Ross, having landed at Benedict, advanced towards the capital; the Americans retiring before him. The whole force for the defence of the city, including militia, did not exceed seven thousand two hundred. They were concentrated on and near the heights of Bladensburg. On the 24th, the British advanced, and commenced an attack, driving in the advanced parties until they encountered the battery of Commodore Barney, manned with seamen and marines, who gave them the only serious repulse which they met, and inflicted the heaviest loss which they suffered in the battle. Being deserted by the militia, this gallant little band were at length surrounded, and their commander, being wounded, was captured and paroled for his courage by General Ross. The city was then abandoned by the president and heads of departments; the whole American force retreated to Georgetown.

At eight o'clock in the evening, General Ross entered the city at the head of eight hundred men. Having arrived on Capitol hill, he offered terms of capitulation, which were, that the city might be ransomed by paying a sum of money nearly equal to the value of public and private property which it contained; and that, on receiving it, the British troops should retire unmolested. As there was no civil or military authority on the spot, competent to enter into such an arrangement as this, he proceeded to burn the Capitol, the president's house, the offices of the several departments, and a considerable number of private dwellings. The navy yard, with its contents, one frigate on the stocks, and several smaller vessels were also destroyed. The libraries and public archives, together with all the works of art contained in the public buildings, were included in the general conflagration.

No parallel for this act of Vandalism can be found in the annals of modern warfare. It was felt with the deepest resentment by the American people, and denounced in the severest terms even in the British parliament. The disgrace of having their capital taken by an enemy was suffered by the Americans in common with every other civilized nation; but the lasting

stigma of burning national archives and senate chambers remains with the British alone.

Having accomplished their object, the enemy, on the 25th, made a precipitate retreat, and on the 30th embarked at Benedict.

The squadron under Commodore Gordon, which had advanced up the river Potomac, arrived at Alexandria on the 29th; and the commander having granted terms of capitulation to the citizens, by which the shipping, naval stores, and merchandise were delivered up, received the surrender of the place. A scene of indiscriminate plunder then ensued. The vessels in the harbour were taken and loaded with the large stores of flour, tobacco, cotton, wines, and sugars, of which Alexandria was the depot, and the whole was carried off with the squadron, on its return down the river. The public and private buildings of the town were mercifully spared.

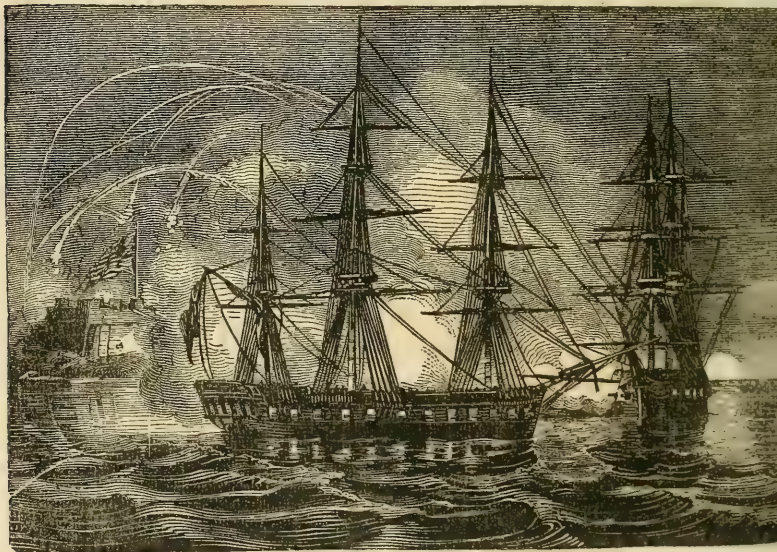
The success of General Ross at Washington induced him to undertake the capture of Baltimore. He boasted that he would make that city his winter-quarters, and with the force which he commanded he could march where he pleased in Maryland.

The Americans were not unprepared for an attack in this quarter. A force of militia from Maryland and the neighbouring states, together with the regular troops who had recently been engaged at Washington, amounting in all to fifteen thousand men, had been assembled for the defence of the city. The command of these troops was given to General Smith, of the Maryland militia, assisted by General Winder.

On the 11th of September, a British squadron of fifty sail, with six thousand men, entered the mouth of the Patapsco, and on the morning of the 12th commenced landing at North Point, fourteen miles below the city. General Stricker was detached with three thousand five hundred militia to oppose their advance. General Ross, having preceded the main body of his army with a small reconnoitering party, was shot through the breast by a rifleman, fell into the arms of his aid-de-camp, and died in a few minutes. The command devolved on Colonel Brook, who led on the attack, which was commenced by a discharge of rockets from the British, and was succeeded by grape, canister, and small arms on both sides. After maintaining his position for an hour and a half against a great superiority of numbers,

General Stricker was at length obliged to retire to Worthington Mills, half a mile in advance of the main body.

On the night of the 12th, the British bivouacked in advance of the battle ground, and on the 13th commenced their march towards the city. When within two miles of the American lines they halted to await the result of the attack on Fort McHenry. This fortress defends the narrow passage from the Patapsco into Baltimore harbour, two miles below the city, and its command had been intrusted to Major Armistead, with one thousand men. Fort Covington, on the right of Fort McHenry, was commanded by Lieutenant Newcomb. On the 12th, a British squadron of sixteen ships drew up in line of battle within two miles and a half of the forts, and at sunrise on the 13th, commenced an attack on them with bombs and rockets. Twelve hundred men were detached to storm the works on the succeeding night, and the battle raged with great fury till the morning of the 14th, when the assailants, being completely foiled, were compelled to retire, and the squadron sailed down the river. Their example was speedily followed by the army, who had sanguinely anticipated the capture and plunder of Baltimore.



BOMBARDMENT OF FORT M^CHENRY.

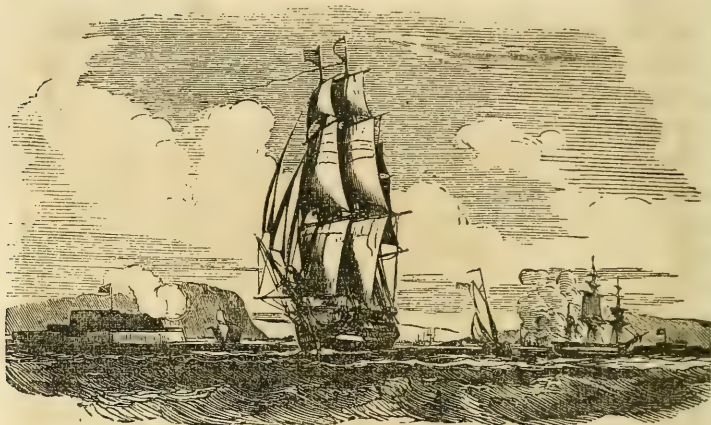


COMMODORE PORTER.

CRUISE OF THE ESSEX.



AMONG those by whom the enterprise of the American navy was chiefly evinced, was Captain Porter, whose cruise on the Pacific terminated about this time. As early as the month of October, 1812, he sailed from the Delaware in the frigate Essex. He doubled Cape Horn, amidst tremendous storms, about the middle of February, 1813, and on the 15th of March put into the port of Valparaiso, and, having obtained the necessary supplies, proceeded on his cruise, along the coast of Chili, and thence to the Gallipagos islands. In the vicinity of



COMMODORE PORTER'S CRUISE IN THE PACIFIC.

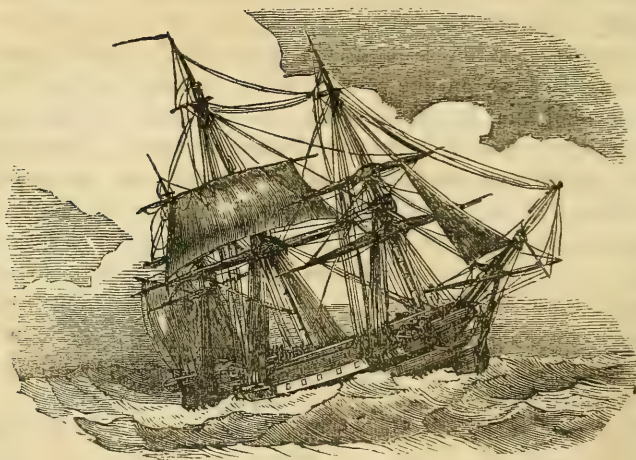
these isles the *Essex* cruised for upwards of six months, during which she totally destroyed that valuable part of the enemy's commerce which was carried on in those seas. The whole of the British vessels at that time in the Pacific, to the number of twelve, carrying in all one hundred and seven guns, and three hundred and two men, were captured. Their value was estimated at two and a half millions of dollars. He converted one of them into a vessel of war, mounting twenty guns, which he named the *Essex Junior*; and sailed for Valparaiso.

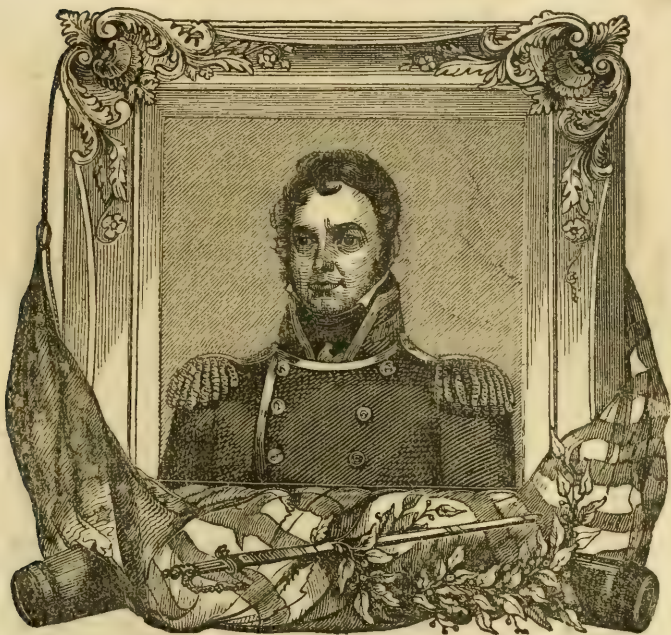
The intelligence of Captain Porter's exploits had at length occasioned a force of the enemy to be sent in pursuit of him. Soon after his arrival at Valparaiso, the *Phœbe*, a British frigate of thirty-eight guns, and a sloop of war, appeared off the port, having been fitted out expressly to meet the *Essex*. They entered the harbour to obtain provisions, and, having effected this, again stood out and cruised off the port for about six weeks. Their united force was much greater than that of Captain Porter, the *Essex Junior* being of but little utility in action. At length, on the 28th March, the *Essex* made an attempt to get to sea, with a favourable wind. The enemy's vessels were close to the shore, and Captain Porter expected to be able to pass to windward of them. Unfortunately, however, in rounding the point, the American vessel was struck by a squall, which carried away her main-topmast. Thus crippled, escape to sea was im-

possible; and as it was equally difficult to reach the harbour, Captain Porter ran into a small bay, and anchored within pistol-shot of the shore. In this situation it was to have been expected that the ordinary rules of warfare, which forbid an attack upon an enemy lying within a neutral territory, would have been observed. It was, nevertheless, soon perceived that Captain Hill-yar, the English commander, was determined to avail himself of the opportunity offered, without regard to the rights of sovereignty of the local government. The Essex was prepared for action with all possible despatch; but before a spring could be put upon her cable to enable her to bring her broadside to bear, the attack was commenced. The British commander, desirous of capturing the Essex with as little loss to himself as possible, placed his frigate, the *Phœbe*, under her stern, while the *Cherub* took a position on her bows. The latter, soon finding the fire of the Essex too warm, bore up, and ran also under her stern, where both ships kept up a heavy and raking fire. Captain Porter continued the action for a considerable time, with three long twelve-pounders, being all the guns which he found it possible to bring to bear on the enemy, when, finding his crew falling fast around him, he cut his cable, and ran down on the enemy, with the intention of laying the *Phœbe* on board. For a short time a close and sanguinary action ensued; but the superior equipment of the British frigate enabling her to choose her distance, she edged off, and continued so heavy a fire from her long guns, that Captain Porter determined to run his ship ashore. He was, however, disappointed in this hope by the wind setting off the land; and after an unequal and hopeless contest of three hours, was compelled to give the painful order to strike the colours.

The loss of the Essex in this engagement was fifty-eight killed, sixty-six wounded, and thirty-one missing, most of the latter escaping to the shore by swimming; that of the British was said to be only five killed and ten wounded. Both of the enemy's vessels, as well as the Essex, were so much crippled, that it was with difficulty they were enabled to reach the port of Valparaiso. Captain Porter and his crew were paroled and permitted to return to the United States in the *Essex Junior*, her armament being previously taken out. On arriving off the port of New York, they were overhauled and detained by the

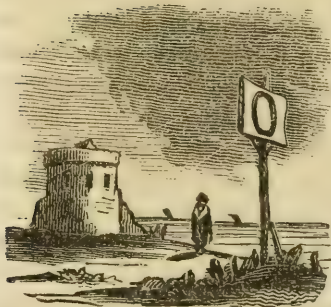
Saturn razee. Being thus treated, Captain Porter told the boarding-officer that he gave up his parole, and considered himself a prisoner of war, and as such should use all means of escape. In consequence of this threat, the *Essex Junior* was ordered to remain all night under the lee of the *Saturn*; but the next morning Captain Porter put off in his boat, though thirty miles from shore; and, notwithstanding he was pursued by the *Saturn*, effected his escape and landed safely on Long Island. His reception in the United States was such as his great services and distinguished valour deserved.





CAPTAIN WARRINGTON.

CAPTURE OF THE EPERVIER AND REINDEER.



ON the 29th of April, the sloop-of-war Peacock, of eighteen guns, commanded by Captain Warrington, fell in with, and after an action of forty-two minutes, captured the British brig-of-war Epervier, of a like number of guns, and one hundred and twenty-eight men, of whom eight were killed and fifteen wounded. The

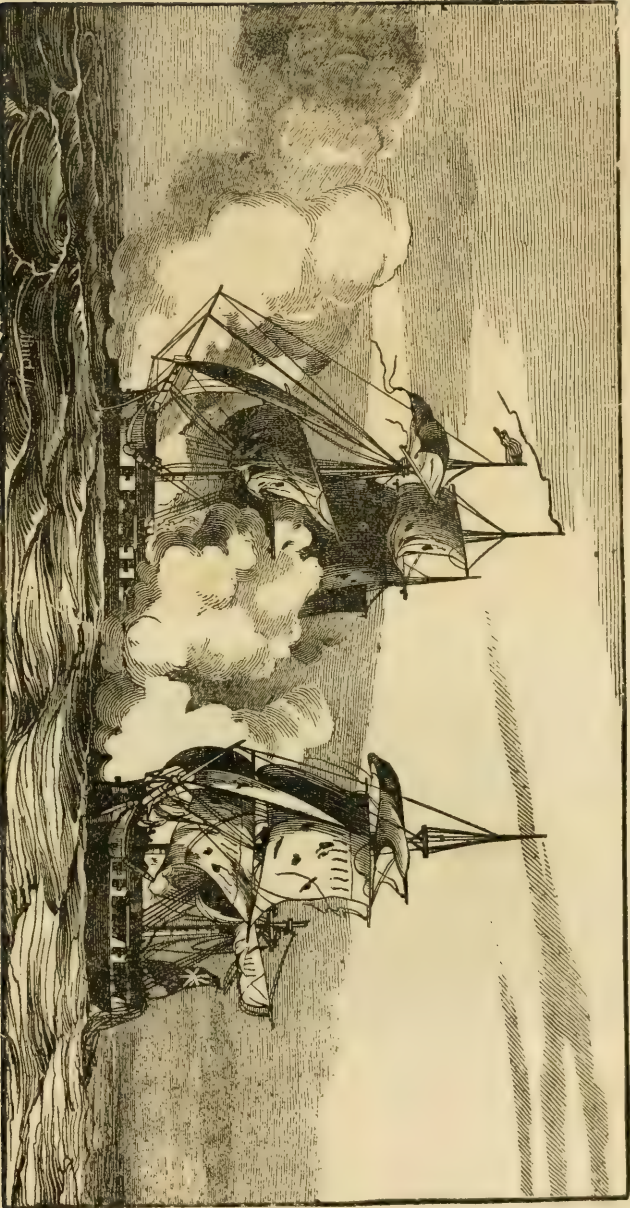
Peacock was deprived of the use of her foresail and fore-top-sail in the early part of the action; but received no other injury, two men only being slightly wounded. The prize had on board one hundred and twenty thousand dollars in specie, which



CAPTAIN BLAKELY.

was transferred to the *Peacock*, and both vessels arrived in safety in the United States.

About this period the sloop-of-war *Wasp*, of eighteen guns, commanded by Captain Blakely, sailed from Portsmouth, on her first cruise. After capturing seven merchantmen, she encountered, on the 28th of June, the British brig-of-war *Reindeer*, of nineteen guns and one hundred and eighteen men. After a series of manœuvres on the part of the latter, by which a close action was for a long time prevented, a warm engagement commenced, which was continued with great spirit on both sides for upwards of two hours, during which the enemy several times attempted to board, but were as often repulsed. The crew of the *Wasp* now boarded with great ardour, and in a few minutes resistance ceased and the British flag was hauled down. Owing to the proximity of the two vessels and the smoothness of the sea, the loss on both sides was severe. That of the Americans was five killed and twenty-one wounded; while the British lost

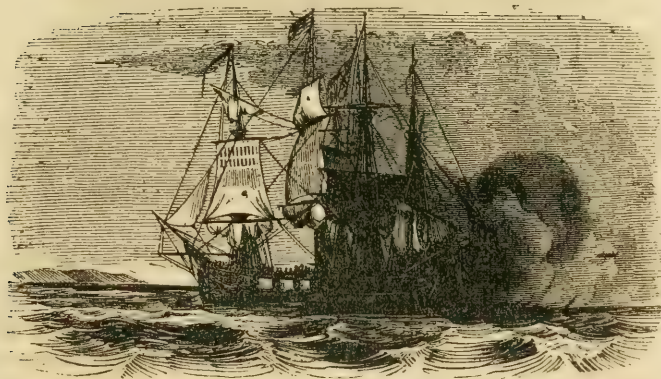


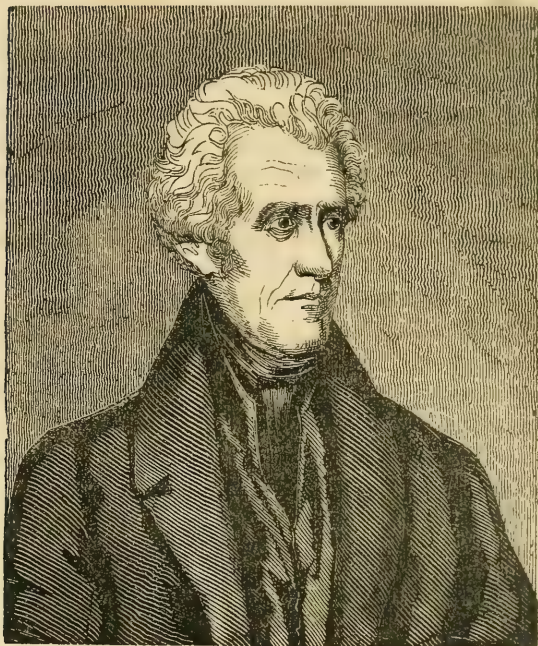
CAPTURE OF THE EPERVIER.

twenty-five killed, including Captain Manners, and forty-two wounded. The Reindeer was so much injured that it was found necessary to set her on fire.

Captain Blakely, continuing his cruise, about the 1st of September discovered a fleet of merchantmen under convoy of a seventy-four gun ship. One of them was taken, and after removing her cargo, was set on fire. On the same evening he fell in with and captured the British sloop-of-war Avon, of twenty guns. The appearance of a British squadron compelled him to abandon his prize, which sunk soon after the removal of her crew.

The damage sustained in this action being soon repaired, Captain Blakely continued his cruise, and on the 23d of September, captured the British brig Atalanta, which he sent into the United States. From this period no tidings ever reached the republic of this gallant ship. Whether she foundered in darkness and tempest, or perished in a conflict with an enemy, has never been ascertained.





GENERAL JACKSON.

EXPEDITION OF THE BRITISH AGAINST NEW ORLEANS.—RETURN OF PEACE.

THE British had for some time been preparing for an expedition against New Orleans. The fleet lately employed in the Chesapeake, and the whole British force which could be spared from the Atlantic coast, had been assembled at Jamaica and at Bermuda, to prepare for this grand attempt. Large reinforcements had been ordered from England, under General Packenham, furnished not only with the means of war, but with printing presses, and custom-house and civil officers, and

every thing incident to a permanent establishment. Indeed, so certain were the enemy of accomplishing their object, that there were merchants on board the fleet who went out for the purpose of buying the cotton which was to compose a part of the coveted plunder.

On the 20th of October, this formidable armament, consisting of sixty vessels, with eight thousand troops, sailed from the West Indies, and on the 18th of November arrived at the entrance of Lake Borgne. On the 2d of December, General Jackson, with the regular troops from the Mobile and Mississippi territory, arrived at New Orleans, and immediately commenced a system of efficient measures for its defence. The militia of Louisiana and Mississippi were ordered out *en masse*, and large detachments from Tennessee and Kentucky. From Governor Claiborne, of Louisiana, General Jackson had previously learnt that the city corps had for the most part refused to turn out on the requisition of General Flournoy, that the legislature of the state, then in session, had encouraged them in their disobedience, and that among the citizens there were many disaffected to the government of the United States, and friendly to the British.

Finding on his arrival in the city that this information was correct, and that the most imminent danger was threatened by the presence and influence of the disaffected, General Jackson, after consulting with the governor and other leading citizens, on the 16th of December issued an order, declaring the city and environs of New Orleans to be under strict martial law. The rigid police which this measure enabled him to exert, soon freed the city from the spies and traitors with which it had abounded; and the citizens addressed themselves earnestly to the business of preparing for the vigorous defence of the city. The fortifications were strengthened, and every man who could bear arms was required to take a part in the military operations on which the safety of all depended.

Fort St. Philip, which guarded the passage of the river at Detour la Plaquemine, was strengthened and placed under the command of Major Overton. An extensive line of works was erected four miles below the city, on the east bank of the Mississippi, the right resting on the river, and the left reaching to an impenetrable cypress swamp. A ditch which had been dug

for agricultural objects, between the river and the swamp, was now made use of for an important military purpose. On its northern bank intrenchments were thrown up, and large quantities of cotton bales were so arranged as to protect the troops effectually from the enemy's fire. These works were well mounted with artillery. Opposite this position, on the west bank of the river, General Morgan, with a body of militia, was stationed, and near him Commodore Patterson, with the crews and guns of part of his squadron; enfilading the approach of the enemy against the principal works. A detachment was stationed above the town, to guard the pass of the Bayou St. John. These dispositions having been made for the defence of the city, the approach of the enemy was firmly awaited.

To clear the way for the transportation of their troops by boats, the British first sent forward forty launches filled with men, who attacked, and after a desperate resistance captured and destroyed the American flotilla stationed on lakes Borgne and Pontchartrain, consisting of five gun-boats and a small sloop and schooner. Having thus obtained possession of the lakes, on the 22d of December a detachment was sent from their rendezvous, at Ship Island, to the Bayou Bienvenue, and having effected a landing unobserved, were marching towards the city. General Jackson, having been apprized of their approach, marched out and attacked them on the night of the 23d. In this action the British lost five hundred in killed, wounded, and missing. They retreated, and intrenched themselves at Bienvenue, four miles from the American camp. The armed schooners *Caroline* and *Louisiana* dropped down the river from the city, and opened a fire on the British lines. On the 27th, the *Caroline* got aground, and was set on fire and destroyed by the hot shot of the enemy. The *Louisiana* succeeded in getting out of the reach of their batteries.

On the 28th, the British advanced within half a mile of the American lines, and opened a fire of shells and rockets, but were repulsed by the artillery. On the night of the 31st, they came within six hundred yards of the works, erected three batteries, and opened a heavy fire. Under cover of these batteries they attempted three times to storm the works, but were repulsed, and their batteries being silenced, they returned to their former position.



BATTLE OF NEW ORLEANS.

The final assault was reserved for the 8th of January. To insure its success, it was deemed necessary to order a simultaneous attack to be made on the main works, and on the position of General Morgan and Commodore Patterson, west of the river. Colonel Thornton was detached for the latter service, with five hundred men, and soon effected a landing. Colonel Davis, with three hundred Kentucky militia, being ordered to the water's edge to oppose them, was soon put to flight, and the Louisiana militia, under General Morgan, also fled, deserting their battery. Commodore Patterson's battery being thus left unsupported, his crews were obliged to yield to a superior force; but the resistance which they were able to make detained the British until the contest on the other side of the river was nearly over.

While these operations were going forward on the west bank of the river, the decisive action was fought on the opposite side. At daybreak, on the 8th, the main body of the British, under General Packenham, advanced from their encampment to storm the American lines. A battery which they had erected the evening before, within eight hundred yards, opened a fire to protect their advance. They came on in two columns, the left

column along the levee against the American right, and the right column advancing to the swamp, for the purpose of turning General Jackson's right. When they had approached within three hundred yards of the lines, forty pieces of artillery from the American works opened upon them a destructive fire of grape-shot and musket-balls, and mowed them down by hundreds, while the riflemen, taking deliberate aim, made nearly every shot take effect. Through this destructive fire the British left column rushed on with their fascines and scaling ladders, and carried the advanced bastion of the American right; but being unsupported, and assailed by the battery planted in the rear, and a regiment of riflemen brought up for the purpose, they were driven from the ground with immense loss of lives. The right column of the British having attempted to pass into the swamp for the purpose of turning the American left, were prevented from effecting their object by the nature of the ground, and being exposed to the fire from the batteries, were compelled to retire. The assault continued an hour and a quarter, during which the British were exposed to the destructive fire from the American artillery and musketry, while the breastworks of cotton bales, which no balls could penetrate, afforded a perfect protection to their opponents. General Packenham was mortally wounded; General Gibbs, the second in command, also received a mortal wound; and General Keane, the third in command, was wounded so severely as to be incapable of performing his duties of commander.

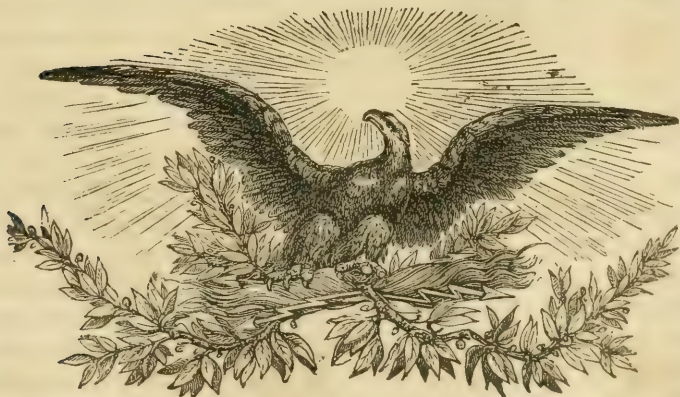
At eight o'clock the British retreated to their works. The militia were anxious to pursue them, but General Jackson prudently determined not to risk the loss of the city by so rash a proceeding. Of the troops which the British had brought into the field, seven hundred were killed, fourteen hundred wounded, and five hundred captured, making a total loss of twenty-six hundred. The Americans lost six killed, and seven wounded. Of General Morgan's detachment on the west bank, and of a party sent on a sortie on the British lines, forty-nine were killed, and one hundred and seventy-eight wounded.

The British kept up the appearance of renewing the attack, and on the ninth commenced a bombardment of Fort St. Philip, which was continued till the 17th, and sustained by Major Overton and his garrison with but trifling loss. This, however, was

merely a feint to cover their final retreat, which took place on the 16th of January, under the direction of General Lambert.

While the whole country was electrified with the news of this important victory, intelligence was received from Europe of the conclusion of a treaty of peace by the commissioners assembled at Ghent. The treaty had been signed on the 24th of December, and ratified by the prince-regent of England on the 27th. It was received in the United States on the 11th, and ratified on the 17th of February by the president and senate. The pacification of Europe, in 1814, had removed all the real grounds of war between Great Britain and the United States, by rendering the interruption of American commerce and the impressment of seamen unnecessary for promoting the objects of the British government. The conquests on both sides were restored; and provision was made for settling the boundaries between the United States and Canada, which, till 1842, continued a subject of negotiation.

A treaty to regulate the commerce between the two countries was signed at London on the 3d of July, and ratified by the president on the 22d of December.





BATTLE OF WATERLOO.

NAPOLEON'S HUNDRED DAYS' REIGN— BATTLE OF WATERLOO.



AFTER Napoleon's banishment to Elba, his numerous friends in France had recourse to every means in their power to foment popular dissatisfaction, and to excite some undefined expectation of the future return of their favourite ruler. In the beginning of the year 1815, he returned in reality. Escaping from Elba, he disembarked on the 1st of March, with about nine hundred men, near the small town of Cannes, in the gulf of Juan: thence he advanced to Gap. On the 5th, in his way to Grenoble, he was joined by many of the officers, and all the soldiery stationed there. From Grenoble he advanced to Lyons, where Monsieur the king's brother, and the duke of Orleans, had hastened to oppose his farther progress. Here also the troops joined him. On the 17th, he reached Auxerre; he then proceeded to Fontainebleau, and on the evening of the 20th entered Paris without opposition. Louis had left his capital at one in the morning of that day, and, after vainly

attempting to secure himself in Lille, fled first to Ostend, and afterwards to Ghent. The whole of the army, with the exception of a few of the officers, and almost the whole of the civil authorities, readily acknowledged the cause of Napoleon, thus once more seated on his abdicated throne by the most rapid transition known in history.

One of the first acts of the restored emperor of France was to attempt to induce the allied powers to acquiesce in his restoration, as being, he said, the unanimous act of the French people, and to abide in all other respects by the treaty of Paris of the preceding year. But all those powers agreed unanimously that they would have neither peace nor truce with him. It was become evident, therefore, that there must be another appeal to the sword. Both parties made the most gigantic preparations. Napoleon endeavoured to gain popularity by proposing institutions of a nature favourable to liberty, and similar to those of Louis's constitutional charter. But he clearly saw that his real strength lay in his army; and it was plain, that if victory should restore his authority, all the national and civil institutions would again bend before his will.

In the beginning of June, a combined English and Prussian army was quartered in the neighbourhood of Brussels and Charleroi, under the command of the duke of Wellington and marechal Blucher. Napoleon, with his characteristic decision and promptitude, put himself at the head of one hundred and fifty thousand selected troops, who had assumed the title of the army of the north, and on the 14th of June commenced operations on the Flemish frontier. On the 15th, he passed the Sambre, and took Charleroi. On the 16th, two battles were fought at Ligny and at Quatre Bras. In the one of these, Napoleon gained the advantage over Blucher; in the other, marechal Ney had a severe struggle with the English, in which neither party gained a clear superiority. In this action at Quatre Bras, the duke of Brunswick was killed—the son of that duke who had commanded the Prussian army in the war which broke out in the beginning of the Revolution. Both these actions, however, are chiefly memorable as the precursors of the decisive battle which followed on the 18th, at Waterloo, and which terminated for ever Napoleon's splendid career. It had long been his wish to be personally opposed to the duke of Wellington, and, when he joined the

army of the north, he exultingly exclaimed: "*Je vais me frotter contre Wellington.*" His wish was gratified, but never perhaps was any defeat more bloody or more disastrous than that which he was destined now to sustain. He issued his orders, and viewed the battle from a convenient distance; and an officer who was standing near him affirmed that, "his astonishment at the resistance of the British was extreme: his agitation became violent: he took snuff by handfuls at the repulse of each charge." At last he took the officer by the arm, saying, "The affair is over,—we have lost the day,—let us be off!" In this heartless manner, and thinking only of himself, Napoleon abandoned an army which was wholly devoted to him. He fled to Paris, where he arrived on the 20th.

He again abdicated, making at the same time another ineffectual attempt to place the succession in the hands of his son. On the 29th, he set out for Rochefort, intending to seek refuge in the United States of America. In the mean time, the allied army advanced on Paris. On the 7th of July, the city surrendered, and on the 8th, Louis XVIII. re-entered it.

Thus closed finally that succession of revolutions which had distracted Europe for a period of twenty-five years. Peace was again restored nearly on the basis of the treaty which had been contracted the year before, but with some resumptions of territory by the allies on the frontiers of the Netherlands, of Germany, and of Savoy. It was also provided, that an allied army of one hundred and fifty thousand men should occupy, for the space of three or five years, a line of fortresses from Cambray to Alsace, the possession of which would enable them, in any case of necessity, to march straight to Paris without opposition. This army was to be maintained wholly at the expense of France, and France agreed also to pay seven hundred millions of francs, to be divided in different proportions among the allied powers, as a partial indemnification for the expenses of this last contest, which had been brought on so unexpectedly by the return of Napoleon. It was also decided that the pictures and statues, of which Italy, the Netherlands, and other countries, had been despoiled, should be restored to their ancient possessors. Not even the occupation of their territory by foreign troops, and the sort of tribute which they were compelled to pay for their maintenance, appear to have been so grating to the national vanity as

the being compelled to make this just restitution. The definitive treaty was signed at Paris, on the 20th day of November.

Napoleon, now a hopeless fugitive, arrived at Rochefort on the 3d of July. He there embarked on board a small frigate for America; but an English ship of superior force lying in sight, it was impossible, if he sailed, to escape being taken. Under these circumstances, he surrendered himself, on the 15th of July, to the English. The English captain received him and his suite on board, and immediately sailing for England, arrived in Torbay on the 25th. After various discussions as to the manner in which he should be treated, it was finally determined that he should be sent to the island of St. Helena; a place which combined, in a remarkable degree, the provision for the safe custody of his person, with the least restraint possible of his domestic comforts and his habits of exercise. This consideration was fairly regarded as due to a man who had filled so high a station in the world, and whose return from Elba, however perfidious and indefensible, had been sanctioned by the applause and approbation of the powerful kingdom from which he was again expelled. The expedition conducting him arrived at St. Helena on the 18th of October, 1815. A place called Longwood was fitted up for his reception. He there resided nearly six years, and died on the 5th of May, 1821.

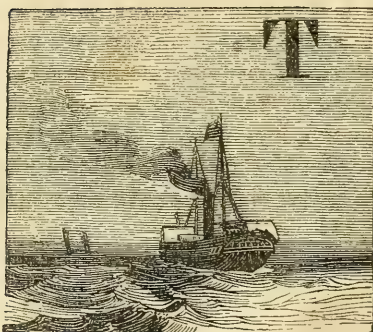


BLUCHER.



ATHENS.

THE GREEK REVOLUTION.



THE events of the Greek revolution, which began in 1820, and of the war between the Greeks and Turks, which lasted ten years, till the end of 1829, are well known through the works of Leake, Stanhope, Blaquiere, and numerous others. The Greeks were determined to shake off the Turkish yoke, and they

succeeded in clearing the Morea of their enemies and defeating them by sea. The Porte, unable to subdue them, called to its assistance the disciplined forces of the pasha of Egypt, which invaded the Peloponnesus, and the cause of Greek independence had again become problematical, when the three powers, Great Britain, France, and Russia, resolved to put a stop to this war of extermination, which had been carried on for so many years. The victory of Navarino, gained by the allied fleets in October, 1827, obliged the Egyptian forces to evacuate the Morea. The conference of London, in March, 1829, established the principle of the independence of Greece as a state, and the successful campaign of the same year of the Russians against the Turks induced the sultan to acknowledge it by an article of the treaty of Adrianople, in September, 1829. In

January, 1830, the conference of London settled the total independence of Greece from the Porte, and fixed Thermopylæ and the Aspropotamos as the frontiers of the new state, which were afterwards extended in 1832 to the present boundary line, with the consent of the sultan. Meantime, the internal government of Greece had undergone many vicissitudes. During their arduous struggle against the Turks, the Greeks had called together at Trœzen a congress of deputies from the various districts, which settled the basis of a constitution; but the vicissitudes of the war prevented the government from assuming a fixed and orderly shape. When the independence of Greece was secured by the interference of the three allied powers, the congress appointed Count John Capodistria, a native of Corfu, who had been employed with distinction as a diplomatic agent of Russia, to be the head of the executive of the new state of Greece, with the title of president, for seven years, and with very extensive powers. Capodistria arrived in Greece in February, 1828, and he set about establishing a central system of bureaucracy, as in France and Russia, by which the government was to interfere in and regulate at pleasure all the concerns of society, civil, financial, commercial, municipal, and religious. Unfortunately for his plan, the Greeks, even under Turkish despotism, had been used to much individual freedom, and to have the direction of their own municipal, judicial, and commercial affairs, under the guidance of their archontes and clergy; the Turks lived chiefly in the fortified towns, interfering but little in the internal concerns of the rayahs, and employing the archontes themselves to exact whatever they wanted from the people. The result of Capodistria's rash measures was an insurrection, which began in Maina and Hydra, and soon extended to most of the islands, and to the warlike population of Roumelia.

On the 8th of October, 1831, Capodistria was murdered at Nauplia in open day, on the threshold of the church of St. Spiridion, by George and Constantine Mauromicali, the relatives of Petros Mauromicali, the bey of Maina, whom the president had kept for a long time in prison without bringing him to trial. His brother Augustin Capodistria succeeded him in the presidency, but the civil war continuing, he was obliged to resign. At last the allied powers offered the crown of Greece,

which had been refused by Prince Leopold of Saxe Coburg, to the king of Bavaria for his younger son Otho, then a minor; and the offer being accepted, Otho, accompanied by a council of regency, and a body of Bavarian troops, arrived at Nauplia in February, 1833, and was willingly acknowledged by the Greeks as their sovereign. In June, 1835, King Otho, being of age, took the direction of the affairs of state. The government is a constitutional hereditary monarchy, with two legislative houses—a senate and house of representatives. In the year 1836, King Otho made a journey to Germany, where he married Amelia Maria, daughter of the grand-duke of Oldenburg; and in February, 1837, he returned with his bride to Greece, and made his entrance into Athens, the capital of the kingdom, in the midst of general acclamations. It is settled that the children of this marriage shall be brought up in the Greek communion. Since the arrival of King Otho, Greece has been comparatively quiet, bating some intrigues and dissensions between the Roumeliote chiefs, the Moreote primates, and the old klepht Colocotroni.





CHARLES X.

FRENCH CONQUEST OF ALGIERS—FRENCH REVOLUTION OF 1830.

IN 1827, the French government had sent a fleet under Admiral de Rigny to the coast of the Morea, for the purpose of joining the English in putting a stop to the barbarous warfare between the Greeks and the Turks. De Rigny and the English admiral, Codrington, acted in concert in the battle fought in Navarino bay, in which the Turkish fleet was destroyed, and France, in like manner, subsequently became a party to the treaties by which Greece was finally extricated from the Turkish yoke, and made, at least ostensibly, an independent state.

In the same year some disputes took place with Algiers, and a blockading squadron was despatched there to demand satisfaction. Some slight hostilities followed; but these were only a prelude to the sending a formidable army there three years afterwards.

This army, which consisted of no less than thirty-seven thousand men, sailed from Toulon on the 25th of May, 1830. It was

commanded by the comte de Bourmont, who had been originally a Vendean chief, but had tarnished his reputation by his readiness to join all parties, and had been a Bourbonist and a Bonapartist by turns. On June 14th, after encountering much hazy and baffling weather, the army was landed on the coast of Africa, at about fifteen miles to the west of Algiers. On the 4th of July, as the French were preparing an assault against one of the forts, the dey sent a flag of truce to treat for peace, and the terms finally settled were that the town should be delivered up to France, and that the inhabitants should retain their private property and personal liberty, together with the free exercise of their religion. The dey himself was expelled, and finally took up his abode at Naples. It had been originally announced that this expedition had been fitted out for the purpose of causing the French flag to be respected by the piratical states, and not with any view to a permanent conquest; but no disposition to abandon the new colony thus acquired has yet been shown.

The news of this success reached Paris on the 9th of July, and it was for a moment hoped that it might gain some popularity for the ministers. The public feeling was, however, by this time too much decided to be easily turned. On the 26th the king issued six ordinances, by which the liberty of the press was abolished; the newly elected chamber of deputies dissolved, though it had not yet met; a new mode of election appointed; and several individuals very obnoxious to the people nominated as members of the council of state. The intelligence of this subversion (for it was nothing less) of the charter was first communicated to the public by the appearance of the ordinances in the government newspaper. Even Maréchal Marmont, who had the military command, and was the person to be relied on to suppress any tumult or insurrection, had not been apprized of what was intended. The king passed the day in hunting, and the ministers, although some mobs collected in Paris, and broke lamps and windows, and threw stones at Prince Polignac's carriage, were so blind to their danger that they even congratulated each other on the tranquillity of the capital. But these congratulations were very premature.

During the whole of the next day the agitation went on increasing. The military were called out, and in some places the

collected multitudes were charged by the cavalry. In other places, after much forbearance, the streets were cleared by volleys of musketry. By these means a temporary repose was obtained at an early hour of the night, and the ministers again hoped that the contest was come to an end. Many persons also have thought that if the ensuing night had been passed by the government in active preparation for the more serious contest of the next day, the insurrection might still have been suppressed.

At an early hour of the morning of the 28th, large bodies of people were everywhere in motion. At nine o'clock, the tricolour flag was seen to wave from the top of the cathedral of *Nôtre Dame*, and at eleven from the central tower of the *Hôtel de Ville*. On this morning, there also appeared in the throng several armed citizens arrayed in the old uniform of the national guard. The ministers declared the town in a state of siege, and *Marmont*, who had been disgusted at the weakness and precipitation which had brought affairs into this dangerous state, was now seriously alarmed for the result, and recommended to take measures of pacification. No attention was paid to this recommendation, and at mid-day he put the guards in motion. A series of contests ensued in all parts of the town, some of which lasted till late at night. The troops fought under the disadvantage of being plunged in narrow and crowded streets, in which, though, when they could act together, they surmounted all opposition, they were exposed to a harassing fire from the windows, and to the hurling down on their heads of stones and tiles, or any other missiles that could be found. Even boiling water and oil were used as instruments of warfare on this occasion; and it is said that one lady and her maid contrived to throw down a pianoforte on the heads of the adverse party in the streets. The scene on which the contest of this day took the most serious appearance was the *Place de Grève*, and the north end of *Pont Nôtre Dame*. Of these stations the guards took possession, though under a series of incessant attacks. But the troops of the line, which had been appointed to support them, refused to act, and the guards were therefore at length compelled to retire, first to the *Hôtel de Ville*, and afterwards to the *Tuileries*. There is no doubt that *Marmont* had exposed his troops to these repulses by frittering them into

small bodies ; but his heart had never been in the cause for which he was fighting. He was pledged by the office which he bore to obey the orders of the government, but he saw and felt, at the same time, that it was going wrong.

In the mean time, some of the deputies to the new chamber, which the king had dissolved, endeavoured, but in vain, to restore tranquillity. They had assembled on the 27th, and had protested against the fatal ordinances of the day before. On the 28th, a body of them proceeded to the Tuileries, and had an audience of Marmont, who tried to persuade them to use their influence with the people to make them submit. They replied that the ordinances must be repealed, and the ministers changed, before any conciliation could be attempted, and that, if these things were not done, they must themselves take part against the government. Marmont wrote at five in the afternoon to the king, to express his opinion of the great danger of the crisis which had arrived, but received in return only an injunction to persevere in the use of force, and to act in larger masses than before.

The night of the 29th was passed by the populace in erecting barricades across the principal streets, to hinder them from being penetrated or scoured by the troops. On the evening of the 27th, they had made, in some places, a rude sort of blockade with carriages and omnibuses. They now broke up the pavement at intervals, and heaped it into mounds, which they augmented with planks and pieces of furniture ; and they also cut down and employed in the same manner the trees of the Boulevards. All these preparations, however, were not brought to the trial. The soldiers, instructed by their experience of the day before, did not attempt to penetrate again into the narrow streets, and maintained themselves during the whole of the morning of the next day in their positions. The populace made, however, several skirmishing attacks, and some of them fell by the fire of the guards.

The first approach to a decision of the contest was by the desertion of the regiments of the line at about noon of this day, the 29th. But before this was known, or during an interval in which the guards had been removed from their post, the populace made way into the garden in front of the Louvre, and thence, entering through the windows and glass doors,

took possession of the whole interior of the edifice. The remainder of the guards were compelled to fly in disorder; they rallied for a time in the Place de Carrousel, but were not supported, and were again obliged to retire. Shortly afterwards, Marmont relinquished the possession of the city to the insurgents. He withdrew all the troops whom his orders could reach, and directed them to take the road to St. Cloud, in order to protect the person of the king. And thus, by three in the afternoon, Paris was left entirely at the command of the populace.

The ministers now tendered their resignations; and the king, seeing the necessity of the case, signed an order, by which he repealed the obnoxious decrees, and appointed a new ministry composed of men attached to popular principles. But, before this order could be received in Paris, the Parisians had determined that he should not be permitted to reascend the throne.

As soon as the retreat of Marmont and his troops was ascertained, the deputies in Paris formed and proclaimed a provisional government. The national guard was called out, and General La Fayette was appointed to take the command. The personal influence and popularity of this veteran was exceedingly great with all classes of citizens. All his orders were willingly obeyed; and it is thought to have been greatly through the weight of his individual character that order and police were restored throughout the whole city before the close of the day. It is also remarked, that no instance has been recorded in which the disorder of these three days was made the occasion of any plunder, or of gratifying any private malice.

Such was the revolution *de trois jours*, or of the three days. Never before, probably, was any contest of so much moment, and so hotly contested, begun and ended so rapidly. There is a story of a party of Englishmen, who had arrived in Paris just at the time on a tour of pleasure, and who never found out what was going on. They perceived that there was a violent tumult, but, being ignorant of the French language, did not discover its meaning till they learned on their return home from the English newspapers, that they had been "assisting," as the phrase was, at a revolution.

On the 30th of July, the deputies invited the duke of Orleans to place himself at the head of the government, with the title

of lieutenant-general of the kingdom. The duke accepted the offer without delay, and on the following morning issued a proclamation announcing his appointment, and adding that the chambers were about to assemble to consider of the means to secure the reign of the laws and the maintenance of the rights of the nation, and that the charter should henceforward be a reality. He afterwards met the deputies and the members of the provisional government at the Hôtel de Ville, and pledged himself still more strongly to the most popular principles.

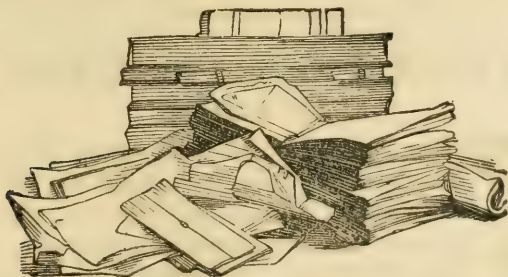
In the mean time, the intelligence of these events was joyfully received as it spread into all parts of the kingdom. The tri-colour flag waved everywhere. The troops submitted to the orders of the new government, the guards only continuing so far their adherence to the court as to deem it their duty still to protect the person of the sovereign. All further contest was hopeless. The court withdrew on the 31st of July from St. Cloud to Trianon, and on the following day to Rambouillet. Here, on the 2d of August, the king and the dauphin signed an act of abdication—the one of the crown itself, the other of his right of succession, in favour of the king's infant grandson, the duke of Bordeaux, the son of the unfortunate duc de Berri. This act of abdication the king addressed to the duke of Orleans, and required him to proclaim the accession of Henry V. No such resource, however, to save the crown for this last scion of the direct stock of the Bourbons was now available. The duke of Orleans, either in his eagerness to be king himself, or because he felt that the proposition came too late, suppressed, in announcing the king's and the dauphin's abdication, the stipulation coupled with it as to the duke of Bordeaux. But that the stipulation had been made was publicly known, and the news threw the capital again into some confusion.

The mob prepared in thousands to march to Rambouillet, in probably much the same temper in which, in the disastrous period of August, 1789, another mob of Paris had marched to Versailles. But the king, though he had still guards who might, and probably would, have defended him successfully against an undisciplined multitude, determined not to prolong an unavailing resistance. He set out for Cherbourg, and on the next day dismissed his guards, retaining only a small escort. After a journey in which he was everywhere treated with re-

spect, but not received with any indications of attachment, he arrived at that port, August 15th. He reached England on the 17th, and, after a short residence at Lulworth castle in Dorsetshire, proceeded to Edinburgh, where the ancient palace of Holyrood, which had been his place of abode during a great part of his former exile, now once more afforded him an asylum.

The chamber of deputies proceeded on the 6th and 7th of August to revise the charter, and to make the formal appointment of the new sovereign. They declared the throne to be vacant; that not only the Roman Catholic, but that all ministers of Christianity, (and to these were added, at a later period, those of the Jews,) should be supported at the public expense; and that all the peerages granted during the reign of Charles X. should be null and void. Finally, they resolved that Louis Philippe duke of Orleans should be called to the throne, by the title, not of king of France, but king of the French, in the same manner in which Napoleon had been entitled emperor of the French, not of France, and that he should be succeeded by his descendants in the direct male line only, in the order of birth.

These resolutions of the house of deputies were transmitted on the same day (August 7) to the chamber of peers, though rather as a matter of courtesy than with any recognition of that house as possessing an independent voice in the legislature. The viscount Chateaubriand spoke, but in vain, in behalf of the claims of the duke of Bordeaux. The declaration of the deputies was adopted, and on the 9th the constitution, as thus created, was formally tendered to and accepted by the new sovereign.





THE EMPEROR OF CHINA.

THE OPIUM WAR BETWEEN ENGLAND AND CHINA.

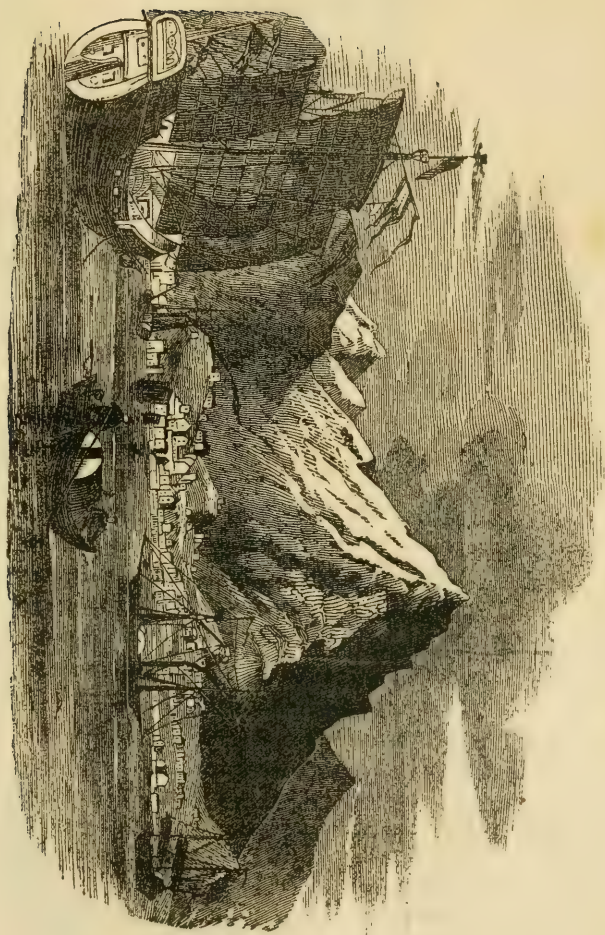
THE prohibition of the importation of opium into Canton having been disregarded by the English, the Chinese government resolved on the adoption of some extraordinary measures to put an end to that illicit trade. Accordingly, commissioner Lin issued a proclamation in March, 1839, requiring the opium con-

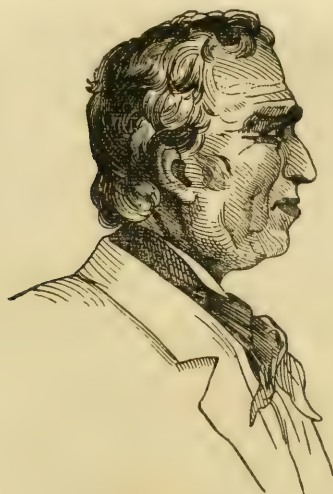


BURNING OF THE ENGLISH FACTORIES BY THE CHINESE.

tained on board the British vessels, or in their store-houses, to be given up. After vainly protesting against this measure, the British merchants were compelled to comply, and 20,283 chests of opium were delivered to the Chinese, and by them destroyed or rendered useless; and in a riot the English factories were burnt. In July, a street fight occurred between some English sailors and a number of Chinese, in which one of the latter was killed. On the refusal of Captain Elliott to surrender the offender, Lin issued another proclamation, forbidding the people to furnish the English with provisions, who, in consequence, were obliged to leave the land and remain on ship-board. Impelled by hunger, the English next made an attempt to take provisions from the inhabitants by force. In vain did Captain Elliott endeavour to re-establish a good understanding between the parties; Lin insisting, as a necessary condition, that the masters of all vessels, before entering the river of Canton, should make a declaration that they had no opium on board, and that, in the event of a search being made, and opium being found, it should be confiscated, and the individual so found guilty of smuggling should forfeit his life. Elliott would not agree to these terms, and skirmishes were constantly occurring between the Chinese and small parties of the English in search of provisions, until, at length, on the 7th of September, a fleet of war-junks attacked the British armed vessels, but were repulsed with considerable loss to the assailants. War was now declared by the British government against China. On the 28th of February, 1840, an attempt was made to set fire to the English vessels. In June, Captain Elliott blockaded the river of Canton; and in August, Admiral Elliott entered the river Peiho, the river on which Peking is situated, and so alarmed the emperor, that he disavowed the acts of Lin at Canton, and appointed a commissioner to conclude a treaty with the English. The promised negotiator did not make his appearance at Canton until the 29th of November; and then so little progress was made in the drawing up of the treaty, that it soon became evident that it was the intention of the emperor merely to amuse the English, and to keep them at a distance from his capital. Accordingly, Commodore Bremer, who now commanded the British naval force, on the 9th of January, 1841, attacked the forts at the Bocca Tigris, and inflicted much damage upon the enemy. This

induced the commissioner to hasten his operations, and on the 20th of January, a preliminary treaty was signed, very favourable to the English. A month, however, having elapsed, without any indication of its ratification by the Chinese being manifested, hostilities recommenced on the 25th of February. The forts at the Bocca Tigris were taken, a fleet of junks destroyed, and, on the 18th of March, the English appeared before Canton, and established themselves in the suburb containing the factories. Then, on the 24th of May, Major-general Sir Hugh Gough, at the head of twenty-five thousand men, attacked and defeated the Chinese army of fifty thousand, commanded by the Tartar general Yeshan, and the minister Hu. He was about to storm the city, when the Chinese again offered to negotiate. The former treaty, very little modified, was again agreed upon, and a portion of the indemnity money paid to the English, who consequently withdrew their forces to Hong-kong; but there new difficulties were interposed by the Chinese. Captain Elliott was now superseded in the office of superintendent by Sir Henry Pottinger, and Admiral Parker was appointed to the command of the fleet. An expedition was fitted out from Hong-kong in August, 1841, and the cities of Amoy, Chusan, Chinhae, and Ningpo were captured. On the 18th of May, 1842, the expedition captured Chapoo, and on the 13th of June reached the confluence of the Woosung with the Yang-tse-kiang, where the enemy had erected batteries, and mounted two hundred and fifty cannon. The position was, nevertheless, carried in two hours. The city of Shang-hae was taken on the 19th of June, and on the 21st of July the British captured by assault the city of Ching-kian-foo. The moral effect produced by the capture of this place was decisive; and when, on the 6th of August, they presented themselves before the great city of Nanking, the second in the empire, an armistice was earnestly solicited by the Chinese; envoys arrived from the emperor, and the war was brought to a close by a treaty ratified on the 26th of August, 1842. By the provisions of this treaty, the emperor consented to indemnify the English for the expense of the war, by the payment of \$21,000,000, the entire cession of the island of Hong-kong, and the freedom of trade at the ports of Shanghai, Ning-po, Fou-tcheou, Amoy, and Canton.





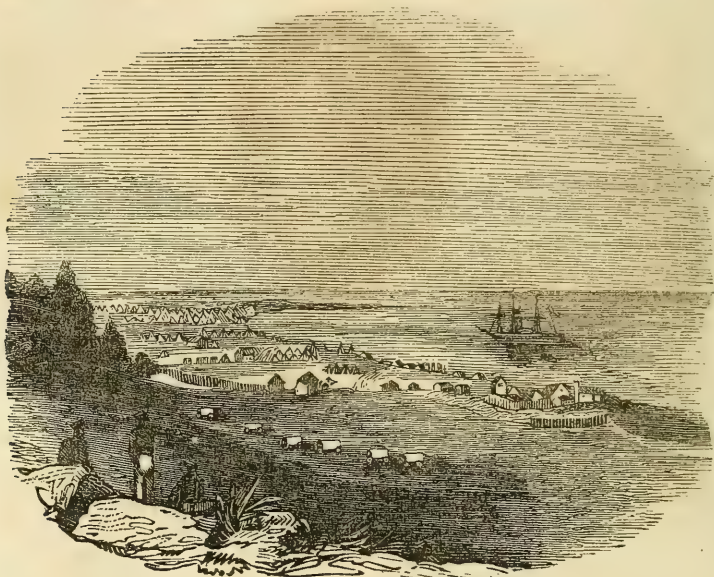
GENERAL TAYLOR.

THE WAR BETWEEN THE UNITED STATES AND MEXICO.



BEFORE the breaking out of hostilities between Mexico and the United States, circumstances rendered a war inevitable. In February, 1845, resolutions annexing the republic of Texas to the United States passed congress. Mexico had never acknowledged the independence of Texas, but looked upon it as a rebellious province. The consequences of the an-

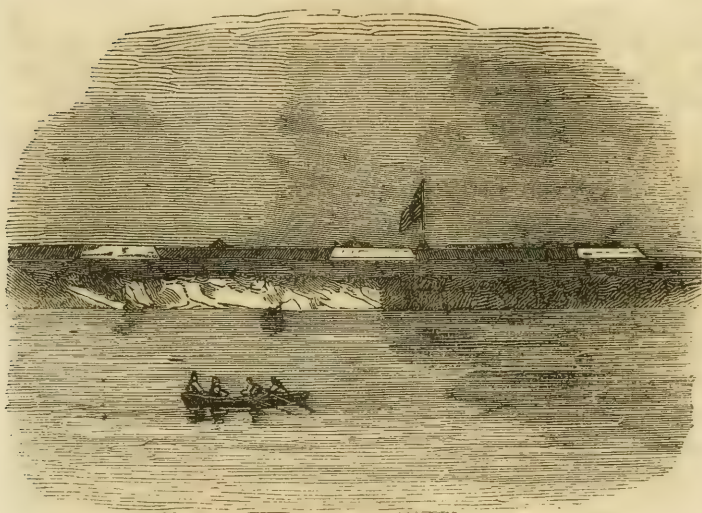
nexation to the United States were, therefore, easily foreseen, and measures taken to provide for them. Upon the receipt of



CORPUS CHRISTI.

the news of the adoption of the annexation resolutions by the Texan convention, Brigadier-general Taylor, with about two thousand five hundred men, was ordered to take a position at Corpus Christi, on the river Nueces, to repel any invasion of the Mexican forces. The "Army of Observation," as it was called, arrived at Corpus Christi, on the 31st of July, 1845. Early in February of the following year, General Taylor received orders to march to the Rio Grande and take a position on that river. The territory between the Nueces and the Rio Grande was disputed, and there can be no doubt, that whatever may have been the prospect of war before, this move hastened hostilities.

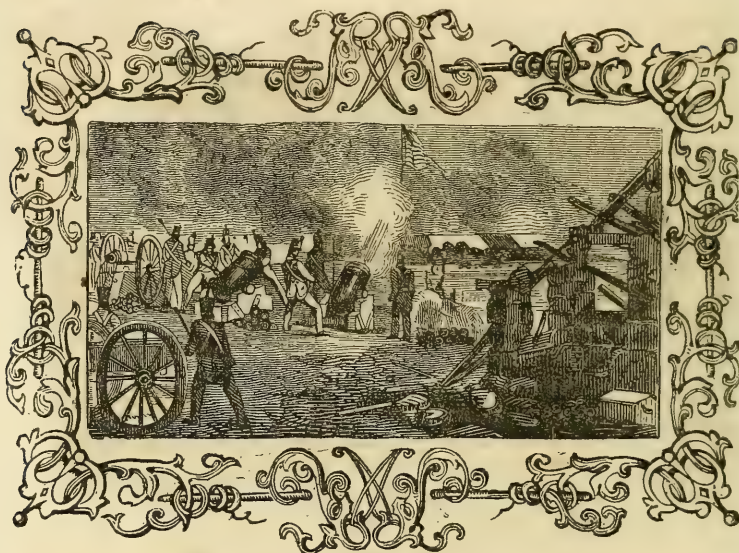
The American army reached the Rio Grande on the 28th of March, 1846. A large force of Mexican troops were collected at Matamoras, on the opposite side of the river, under the command of General Ampudia. Communications between the two commanders were immediately opened, but with no satisfactory result. The Mexicans and Americans both proceeded to erect defences. A strong battery was constructed directly opposite to Matamoras by the Americans, and Matamoras was strongly fortified by Ampudia's forces. Several slight skirmishes took



FORT BROWN.

place about the middle of April, between bands of Mexicans who had crossed the river, and American parties. Colonel Cross was murdered by one of the guerillas, and Lieutenant Porter and a private killed in a skirmish. Leaving Major Brown with a small body of troops in the fort opposite Matamoras, General Taylor marched to Point Isabel, at the mouth of the Rio Grande, which he reached on the 2d of May, without opposition.

On the 3d of May, at daybreak, the Mexicans opened their fire upon the fort, and it was returned with effect, the heavy gun batteries of the Mexicans being silenced in thirty minutes. The throwing of shells was incessantly continued, however, and the little band in the fort were in great peril. Receiving information that the Mexicans had crossed the Rio Grande, and were posted between Point Isabel and Matamoras, General Taylor resolved to march and fight the enemy, no matter what might be their strength. Accordingly, he started at three o'clock, on the 7th of May, and on the 8th, at two o'clock, found the enemy in position, in front of a chaparral, which lies opposite to the timber of a stream called Palo Alto. General Taylor immediately formed his line of battle, although it was clear the Mexicans numbered double his force. The Mexicans opened the action by a fire from their artillery, and it was returned in



SIEGE OF FORT BROWN.

a rapid and effective manner by the Americans. Then the fight commenced in earnest, and lasted till darkness dropped upon the scene. The Mexicans were driven from their position, with a severe loss, and the Americans encamped upon the field.

On the 9th, General Taylor packed the heavy trains, collected the enemy's wounded in hospital, buried their dead, arranged his own wounded, and moved on in pursuit of the Mexicans. They had taken post in a strong position, in the chaparral, on each side of the bed of a stream called Resaca de la Palma, with their artillery on the road at the crossing. General Taylor brought up his troops by battalions, and posted them with brief orders to find the enemy with the bayonet, and placed the artillery where they could act on the road; the dragoons being held in reserve. The battle was a series of brilliant skirmishes and heavy shocks, in which two thousand fighting men, General Taylor's whole force, met six thousand, overwhelmed them with the precision of their volleys and the steady coolness of the bayonet, and drove them from the field with the loss of their artillery, baggage, pack-mules, fixed ammunition, and near two thousand stand of muskets.

The total loss of the Americans during both battles was

thirty killed, and about one hundred and forty wounded. But though the number was small, it included some of the most valuable officers in the army. The Mexican loss at Palo Alto is set down by themselves at four hundred and fifty, in killed and wounded; at Resaca de la Palma, the number of killed, wounded, and prisoners was more than twice that number. Among the prisoners was General La Vega, captured during a brilliant charge of the American dragoons, under Colonel May.

While the battles of the 8th and 9th of May were raging, the Mexican batteries kept up a constant fire upon the American fort opposite Matamoras, but the heroic little force that defended it suffered but little; their principal loss being their indomitable commander, Major Brown, who was killed by the bursting of a shell. As the fugitives from the field of Resaca de la Palma arrived at Matamoras, the fire ceased, and the garrison was relieved by the arrival of General Taylor.

On the 11th of May, an exchange of prisoners took place, and Captain Thornton and his command, who had been surprised and captured at the commencement of hostilities, rejoined the American army. On the 15th, Bariga, a town near the mouth of the Rio Grande, on the Mexican side, was taken by the Americans without opposition, the inhabitants fleeing at their approach. At sunrise, on the 17th, General Ampudia signalized that he wished to parley. He requested that an armistice might be granted, but General Taylor replied that it was too late, and on the 18th, the American forces crossed the river, and entered Matamoras without opposition. The Mexican general retreated to Reynosa, with all his forces.

Although in possession of Matamoras, General Taylor found himself in no condition to advance. He lacked both troops and means of transportation. It became necessary, therefore, for him to remain at this post during the greater part of the summer, waiting for the means to prosecute the invasion.

In the meantime, Captain McCulloch with the Texan rangers had seized and occupied the Mexican ports of Reynosa, Camargo, and Mier, without resistance on the part of the enemy. It was not until the 5th of August, nearly three months after the battle of Resaca de la Palma, that General Taylor was able to take up his line of march from Matamoras for Camargo. On arriving at that place, General Worth was detached to San Juan

while Captain Wall occupied Reynosa, and General Twiggs had been left in command of Matamoras. Towards the end of August, General Worth was ordered to advance to Seralvo and there to await further orders. From this port he sent advices to General Taylor on the 5th of September, that Monterey had just been reinforced by the arrival of three thousand men under General Ampudia, thus increasing the garrison to four thousand.

This important information determined General Taylor to advance immediately and attack Monterey. He accordingly took up his line of march towards Seralvo on the 7th, leaving General Patterson in command of all the forces stationed between Camargo and Matamoras.

Disencumbering his troops of all unnecessary baggage, and sending forward his supplies on pack-mules to Seralvo, Taylor now hastened eagerly on to the next scene in his grand drama. On his arrival at Seralvo, instead of waiting for further reinforcements or fresh orders before attacking so formidable a fort with so light a force, he pushed forward for Monterey with his main body, consisting of but little more than six thousand men.

The character and extent of the work the Americans had before them may be inferred from a short sketch of Monterey:—The town is seated in a beautiful valley, bosomed among lofty and imposing mountains on the north, east, and south, and open to a plain on the west, fortified with thick stone walls in the old Spanish fashion of another century, with all the apparatus of ditches and bastions, and lowering upon them with deep-mouthed cannon. From their elevated position the Americans could see in part what they had already learned from spies and deserters, that the flat-roofed stone houses of the city itself had been converted into fortifications. Every street was barricaded, and every housetop was bristling with musketry. On one side the Americans could see the Bishop's Palace, a strong fort well garrisoned; on the other, redoubts well manned; and in the rear of all, a river.

The attack on Monterey began on the 20th of September. The Americans were divided into two columns; one, under the command of General Taylor, designed to attack the front of the town, and the other, under General Worth, to attack the Bishop's Palace and the other strong works in that quarter. The siege lasted three days, and was characterized by the display of the



STORMING OF MONTEREY.

most undaunted bravery on the part of the American soldiers, and the most consummate skill on the part of the commanding general. One by one the various posts, deemed impregnable, fell into the hands of the besiegers, and they even attained strong positions in the city before the Mexican generals capitulated.

The great strength of the defences of Monterey was not fully seen until after the capture. The town and works were armed with forty-two pieces of cannon, well supplied with ammunition, and manned with a force of at least seven thousand troops of the line, and from two to three thousand irregulars. The whole force of the assailants was about six thousand five hundred men, with only one ten-inch mortar suitable for a siege. The loss of the Americans was twelve officers, and one hundred and eight men killed, and thirty-one officers and three hundred and thirty-seven wounded.

By the terms of the capitulation, the Mexican forces were allowed to retain certain of their arms, and were to retire, within seven days from the capitulation, beyond a line formed by the pass of the Riconada, the city of Linares, and San Fernando de Preras. The forces under General Taylor were not to advance

beyond that line before the expiration of eight weeks, or until orders were received from the respective governments.

After establishing his head-quarters in Monterey, General Taylor detached Brigadier-general Worth with twelve hundred men and eight pieces of artillery to Saltillo. Brigadier-general Wool and the column under his command, twenty-four hundred strong, with six pieces of artillery, were ordered to occupy the town of Parras, a small but beautiful place seventy miles north-east of Saltillo. Saltillo, to which Worth was ordered, is about seventy miles from Monterey, and at an elevation of about two thousand feet above the latter place. General Patterson having been withdrawn on an expedition to act in conjunction with the fleet in the gulf, General Butler was ordered to take the command of the reserve. Saltillo and Parras were occupied by the Americans without any opposition, the enemy having fallen back as far as San Luis Potosi.

Santa Anna had now been recalled to Mexico, and placed at the head of affairs, and Paredes deposed. Santa Anna was nominally commander-in-chief of the Mexican armies—really dictator. He was raising a formidable army to resist the further advance of General Taylor. Before December, he had succeeded in raising twenty thousand men, and concentrating them at San Luis Potosi, which he strongly fortified, and filled with military stores. After awaiting the advance of this formidable force for some time, General Taylor determined to meet them on their own ground.

On the 30th of December, General Taylor received intelligence that General Winfield Scott had been ordered to Mexico, to take command of an expedition against Vera Cruz, and the castle of San Juan de Ulloa, and a requisition for nearly all the regular troops under his command. General Worth was also detached, and proceeded to join General Scott. This deprivation of his best troops was a source of regret to General Taylor, and it was thought would force him to act upon the defensive for a time. But by February, 1847, he had received reinforcements raising his whole army to about six thousand men.

Anticipating an attempt on the part of Santa Anna, an attempt to possess himself of the line of posts between himself and Matamoras, he determined to advance and fight a pitched battle with him. Accordingly, on the 20th of February, we



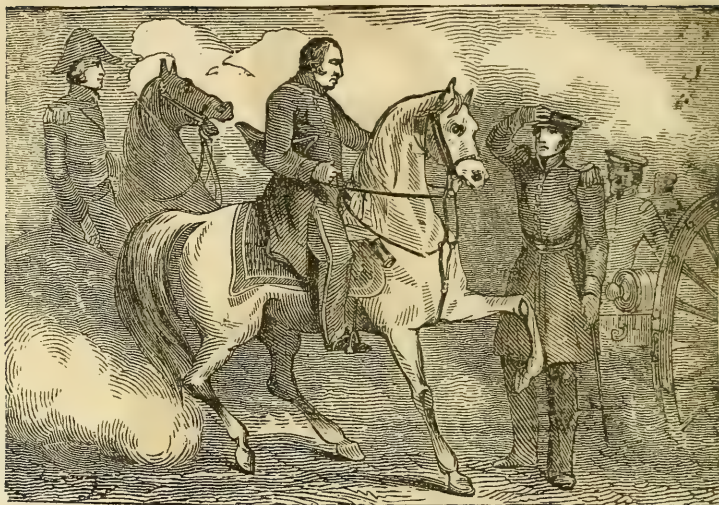
GENERAL WOOL.

find him encamped at Agua Nueva, eighteen miles south of Saltillo, and sending out videttes, who return with intelligence that Santa Anna is within thirty miles of his position, rapidly advancing with some twenty thousand men against his forlorn hope of five thousand four hundred.

On receiving this intelligence, General Taylor determined to choose his own battle-ground, and accordingly fell back to an admirable position in front of Buena Vista, seven miles south of Saltillo.

The features of the ground of Taylor's position were such as nearly to paralyze the artillery and cavalry of an assailant, while his infantry could not derive all the advantage of numerical superiority.

On the 22d of February, the advance of the Mexican forces came in sight, and Santa Anna, the commanding general, sent



TAYLOR AT BUENA VISTA.

General Taylor a summons to surrender, which he, of course, declined, although Santa Anna informed him that he was surrounded by twenty thousand men. The Mexicans then opened a fire from a mortar, but without execution; and then made a demonstration on the left of the Americans, pouring a tremendous fire into their ranks. The skirmishing was kept up until dark, when General Taylor, leaving General Wool in command, returned to Saltillo. The troops bivouacked on the field.

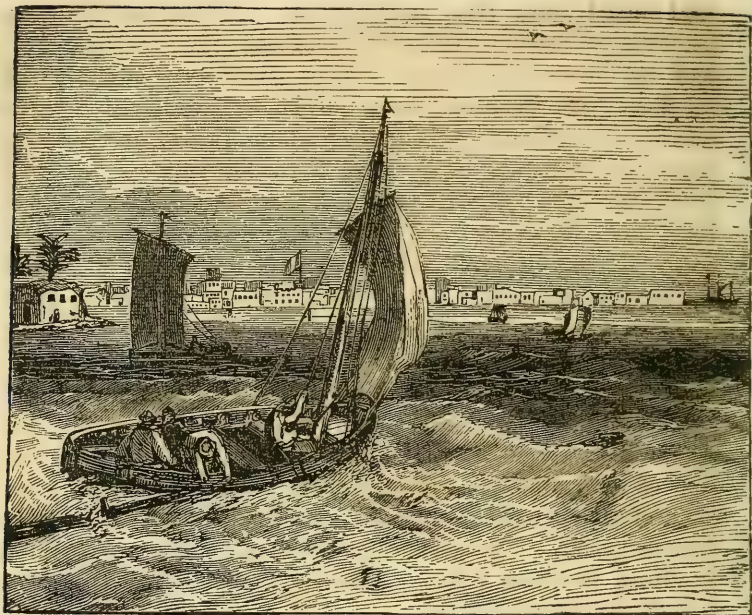
Early on the morning of the 23d, the battle commenced by an attempt of the Mexicans to outflank the left of the Americans, where the Kentucky riflemen were posted. They maintained their position against a vastly superior force, and were well supported by the artillery. But they were overwhelmed and driven back, with the loss of their guns. The Mexicans then poured their masses of infantry and cavalry along the base of the mountain on the left, and were gaining the rear in great force, when General Taylor arrived on the field, and by his skilful and prompt measures, the fortune of the day turned. After a bloody conflict, the Mexicans were driven back. Another body of them gained the rear of the Americans, and were there cut off from the main army. A device of Santa Anna, by which he secured time enough for them to rejoin him, was all

that saved them from annihilation. A last and desperate attempt was made to force the Americans from their position ; and the determined bravery of the Americans, and the vast number of the Mexicans, made the conflict extremely obstinate and bloody. The splendid artillery of the Americans was served with such effect that whole ranks of the enemy were swept by it, and at length they fell back. Night put an end to the battle. The Americans sank down exhausted upon the field, but their untiring general made every preparation for an attack the next morning.

When the morning came, it was found Santa Anna had retreated, evidently satisfied with his previous efforts. No pursuit was attempted, it being considered enough to have maintained a position against such an army. The whole number of Americans engaged at Buena Vista was three hundred and thirty-four officers, and four thousand four hundred and twenty-five men, of which number only four hundred and fifty-three were regular troops. The strength of the Mexican army is set down at fifteen thousand infantry, and six thousand cavalry. The loss of the Americans was two hundred and sixty-seven killed, four hundred and fifty-six wounded, and twenty-three missing. The loss of the Mexicans is said, by Santa Anna, to have been at least fifteen hundred ; more than five hundred of their killed were left upon the field of battle. The victory must be attributed, in great part, to the artillery of the American army, which saved the day at three different times ; but the genius of the commanding general was conspicuous from the choice of position till the close of the battle, and to his coolness and intrepidity, resources and skill, which inspired confidence in the men, must be allowed a due consideration. In spite of the great exertions of the veteran General Wool, it was clearly evident in the early part of the day, that without General Taylor the battle would have been lost.

The subsequent movements of the army under General Taylor are not of sufficient importance to warrant an extended mention. After the battle of Buena Vista, the greater part of the army encamped upon that bloody field, under the command of General Wool ; the rest, under General Taylor, encamped at Walnut Springs, four miles from Monterey.

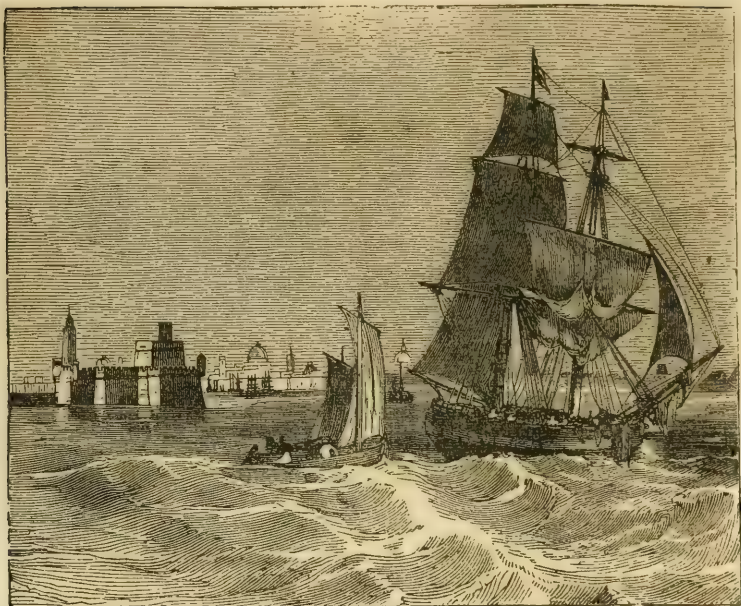
An expedition against the ports on the Gulf of Mexico having



TAMPICO.

been determined upon by the United States government, Major General Scott was ordered to take command of the troops raised for that purpose. He reached the seat of war, January 1st, 1847. By February, the troops under his command amounted to more than eleven thousand men. The proposed object of attack was the city of Vera Cruz and the castle of San Juan d'Ulloa. The fleet under Commodore Conner was to co-operate. This castle is situated on a bar in front of Vera Cruz, and is considered the strongest fortress in America. The city was also strongly fortified—being surrounded by a wall defended by towers.

Early in March, the American army at Tampico embarked on board of the gulf squadron, and on the 7th reached Anton Lizardo, near Vera Cruz. A reconnoissance of the coast was made by General Scott and Commodore Conner, and a portion of the beach west of the Isle of Sacrificios was selected for landing the troops. That event took place on the 9th of March. No resistance was met with, and nearly four thousand men were landed at once. Commodore Conner permitted the marines to



VERA CRUZ.

join the artillery upon land. The time from the 9th to the 22d of March was occupied by General Scott in extending his line completely round to the beach on the opposite side of Vera Cruz, in landing mortars, and in general preparation for a siege. On the 22d, he summoned the city and castle to surrender. Governor Morales replied, that he had prepared for a vigorous defence, and therefore declined. The bombardment was then commenced, and the fire being returned from the city and castle, it was tremendous. The shells of the Americans told with the most destructive effect, and the citizens implored the governor to surrender. But he refused to do so, and resigned his office; and General Llandero was appointed to succeed him. He immediately made overtures for a truce, which was granted on the 26th of March, and negotiations entered into, which resulted in the surrender of the city and castle to the American forces. The whole garrison became prisoners of war, and, according to the terms of the surrender, marched out to an open plain, on the 29th, stacked their arms, and then proceeded towards the interior. The Americans entered the city amidst the strains



HARNEY'S DRAGOON FIGHT.

of their national music, the shouts of the soldiery, and the booming of cannon, both from fleet and castle.

The only fight that occurred during the siege was between a body of dragoons, under Colonel Harney, and a greatly superior force of Mexican lancers. The latter were put to flight, with the loss of nearly one hundred killed and wounded. The Americans had two killed and nine wounded. The loss of the Mexicans in the city during the whole siege is not known precisely. But it is certain that it was very severe. The destruction of property was also great.

After the fall of Vera Cruz, General Scott, having made the necessary dispositions for garrisoning the place, took up his line of march with the main body of the army for the city of Mexico. General Twiggs's division formed the van-guard, and those of Worth and Patterson followed several days after.

On the 17th of April, the army approached the celebrated pass of Sierra Gordo, always reputed to be impregnable, and which was now strongly fortified, with seven batteries so arranged as to protect each other. The position was held by General Santa Anna, a host of other Mexican generals, and the flower of the national army, twenty thousand strong. They were expected to make a desperate stand against the eleven thousand Americans who were advancing towards the capital.



BATTLE OF SIERRA GORDO.

General Scott, having reconnoitred the enemy's position, instantly decided on his plan of operations. This plan, formed with the skill of a master, was executed with all the precision that the general could require. The attack began on the 18th of April, early in the morning. The troops were all in position before daylight. The whole line of the Mexican intrenchments and batteries was attacked in front and turned at the same time. The troops advanced amidst the most deadly and tremendous fire, without hesitation, and before two o'clock, P. M., the Mexicans were driven from their works and pursued with vigour. Their whole force was routed, and Santa Anna came near being captured. About three thousand men laid down their arms, with the usual proportion of field and company officers, besides five generals—a sixth was killed. According to General Scott's official despatch, the army was "embarrassed with the results of the victory." Nearly all the prisoners were released on parole, and the private effects captured were restored to their owners, and the small arms and some ammunition destroyed. The force of the Americans at Sierra Gordo was about eight thousand five hundred. Their loss was thirty-three officers and three hundred and ninety-eight men—total, four

hundred and thirty-one, of whom sixty-three were killed. The loss of the Mexicans in killed and wounded was never known, but during the battle it no doubt equalled their antagonists, and in the retreat was greatly augmented by the slaughter committed among the fugitives by Harney's dragoons.

On the same day that the victory of Sierra Gordo was achieved, the town of Tuspan was captured, with but slight resistance, by a portion of the gulf squadron. On the following day Twiggs entered Jalapa, in pursuit of the flying enemy. On the same day, and the following, the Mexicans abandoned the strong post of La Hoya; and on the 22d, General Worth entered the strong town and castle of Perote. This fortress is one of the most formidable in Mexico. It contained fifty-four pieces of cannon, bronze and iron mortars, eleven thousand cannon-balls, fourteen thousand bombs, and five hundred muskets, all of which fell into the hands of the Americans.

On the 15th of May, General Worth approached the city of Puebla. He was met by a party of lancers, supposed to be led by Santa Anna, with whom a skirmish ensued, in the plains of Amasoca. After losing a few men, the enemy retreated, and were driven into the streets of Puebla, where they separated and escaped.

Thus, in less than two months, General Scott and his army had captured three large cities, two castles, ten thousand men, more than seven hundred cannon, mostly new, and an immense quantity of shells, shot, and small arms. For rapidity of execution, these achievements have scarcely a parallel, except in Napoleon's first Italian campaign.

After the fall of Vera Cruz, the Mexican government authorized the organization of small bands of citizens and villagers, armed and mounted. They were termed "guerilla parties," and being composed mostly of outlaws and robbers—the dregs of the population—they entered upon the campaign with the avowed determination to extend no quarter to any who might fall into their hands, but to rob and murder as often as occasion offered. Spreading themselves over the country through which the route of the Americans extended, they seized the mountain fastnesses and strong passes, attacked scouting parties, intercepted communications, and even entered garrisoned

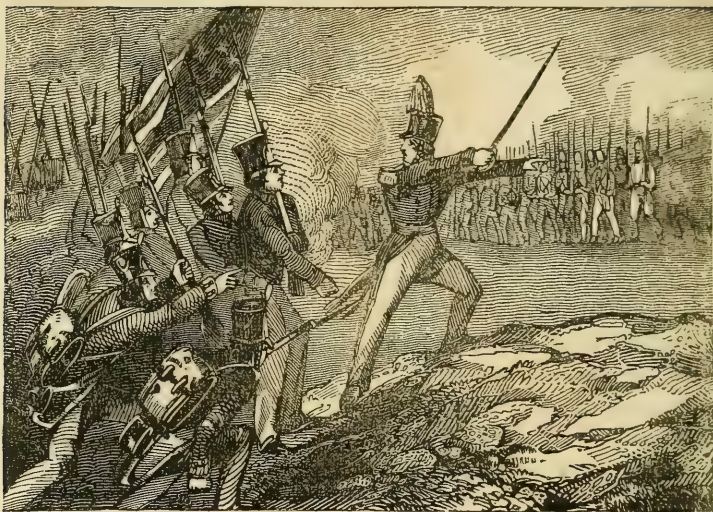
cities at night, and murdered all American stragglers within their reach.

These attacks of the guerillas kept the region between Vera Cruz and Puebla in a state of constant alarm, and rendered travelling, except with a strong escort, in the highest degree dangerous. The most active and daring of these partisans was the celebrated Father Jarauta, a priest, who had organized most of the parties, and who seems to have been considered as their general leader. Vigilant exertions were made to capture him by Captain Walker, and General Patterson, who was then stationed at Vera Cruz, but without success; and, until the close of the war, he continued to arm and lead different bands, whose rapid and fearless movements rendered his name a terror in that neighbourhood.

General Scott, with the main portion of the army, remained at Puebla until early in August, when he prepared for a march upon the capital. A sufficient garrison was left in the city under Colonel Childs. On the 7th, Twiggs's division, preceded by Harney's brigade of cavalry, moved for the capital; and was followed, on the three succeeding days, by the divisions of Quitman, Worth, and Pillow, the corps being at no time more than five hours' march, or supporting distance, apart.

On the 11th of August, the army under Scott descended into the valley of Mexico, the different divisions nearing each other more closely than they had done in any part of the march. A careful reconnoissance of the strong works upon the direct road to Mexico, with the character of the ground, determined General Scott to avoid it, by passing round the western and southern shores of Chalco and Xochimilco, at the foot of the hills and mountains. This march round Lake Chalco is a most striking evidence of the scientific abilities of General Scott. Santa Anna had good reason to believe such a step was impossible. It was a work of a most difficult character, but it enabled the Americans to escape the terrible batteries of Penon and Mexicalzingo. The advance, under General Worth, reached San Augustin on the 18th of August.

The strong post of Contreras was the first object of attack. It was situated on the rocks bordering the western side of the valley, mounting twenty-two guns, and garrisoned by seven thousand troops. General Smith was despatched at the head



BATTLE OF CONTRERAS.

of his own brigade, Cadwalader's and a rifle regiment, with orders to gain the rear of the post; and, after encountering many obstacles from the nature of the route, and being exposed to the fire of the Mexican batteries, he succeeded in reaching the village of Encelda. There he was joined by the brigade of Colonel Riley, and the whole force passed a stormy night without fires or shelter. Their whole strength was only three thousand two hundred men; and there were at least eighteen thousand of the Mexicans in the neighbourhood. At three o'clock, on the morning of the 20th, silent instructions of the plan of attack having been given to the officers, the Americans started to perform their work, leaving General Shields, with the New York and South Carolina volunteers, who arrived very opportunely, in command of the village. Colonel Riley led the advance, and as he reached a favourable position, he formed his men into two columns preparatory to the assault. He then continued his march, and, arriving in full view of the Mexican rear, they opened their fire. Throwing forward a few skirmishers, he shouted to his men to follow, and rushed to the fort, followed by his whole command. This charge, in the face of the enemy's fire, was one of the most brilliant actions of the



GENERAL SHIELDS.

war. Through a destructive storm, Riley hurried his shattered column, and finished the struggle with the bayonet. Every battery in the fort was silenced; the Mexicans were driven in masses from the walls, and were soon flying in every direction. The cavalry outside of the walls were attacked at the same time by Major Dimick, and routed with great slaughter. The guns taken by Santa Anna at Buena Vista were recovered by the same company from whom they had been taken. Such was the enthusiasm of the Americans, that shouts rent the air continually, and the arrival of General Scott, who joined in the shouts of the soldiers, added to the hilarity of the occasion.

The reports of the Mexican officers leave no doubt that there was, in and about Contreras, seven thousand regular troops, under General Valencia, and a reserve of ten thousand near Encelda, under the command of Santa Anna. Their loss was



GENERAL WORTH.

seven hundred killed, a large number wounded, and fifteen prisoners, including several generals. The Americans numbered three thousand two hundred men, without guns or cavalry, and yet they drove twice their number from a fort thought to be impregnable, and captured a great quantity of artillery and ammunition. The attack was ably planned by General Smith, and bravely and rapidly executed by Riley and his men.

The forces were now disposed for an attack on a still stronger position than Contreras. The whole of the remaining forces of Mexico, some twenty-seven thousand men, were now collected in on the flanks, or within supporting distance of the works, at the village of Churubusco. The principal defences were a fortified convent, and a strong field-work, (*tête de pont*), with regular bastions and curtains, at the head of a bridge over which the road passes from San Antonio to the capital. The

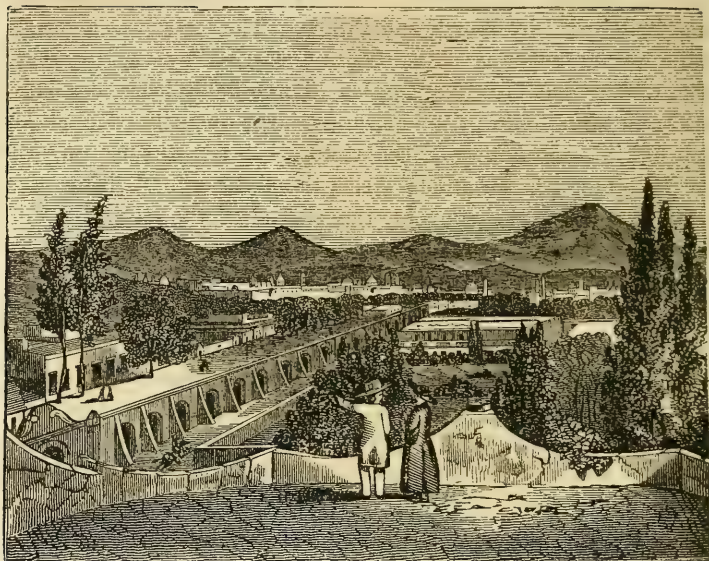
fortified convent was warmly attacked by Twiggs's division, and the *tête de pont* by Worth and Pillow. The latter was a formidable work; but was assaulted and carried by the bayonet, after a short but bloody struggle. Three field-pieces, one hundred and ninety-two prisoners, and a large quantity of ammunition fell into the hands of the victors. After the capture of the *tête de pont*, the whole strength of the two divisions was directed against the convent, the citadel of the strong line of defence at Churubusco. After a desperate conflict of two hours and a half, signals of surrender were thrown out on all sides, though not before some of the infantry had entered the work. The immediate results of this victory were seven field-pieces, some ammunition, one colour, three generals, and one thousand two hundred and sixty-one prisoners. While the attack was being made on the convent and *tête de pont*, General Shields, with two brigades, was detached to the left to turn the enemy's works, and prevent the escape of the garrison. The battle at that point was long, obstinate, and bloody; but in the end success crowned the determined bravery of Shields's troops, and the Mexicans were driven from the field, with a severe loss in killed and wounded, and three hundred and eighty of them were taken prisoners. This completed the rout of the Mexicans, and they were pursued to within a mile of the capital; a company of dragoons even charged them up to the nearest gate.

The results of the whole day's work on the 20th of August are thus summed up by General Scott:—

“It (the army) has, in a single day, in many battles as often defeated thirty-two thousand men; made about three thousand prisoners, including eight generals, (two of them ex-presidents,) and two hundred and five other officers; killed or wounded four thousand of all ranks, besides entire corps dispersed and dissolved; captured thirty-seven pieces of ordnance—more than trebling our siege train and field-batteries—with a large number of small arms, a full supply of ammunition of every kind. These great results have overwhelmed the enemy.”

The loss of the Americans, in killed, wounded, and missing, was one thousand and fifty-three. The whole force engaged during the day was only eight thousand five hundred men.

The enthusiasm of the Americans did subside upon the entire rout of the Mexican forces; but many were anxious to



CITY OF MEXICO FROM THE CONVENT OF SAN COSME.

push on at once to the attack upon the capital. General Scott, however, knew better the character of the work before him, and he determined to recruit his men before attempting it. Most of the army had been watching, marching, fasting, and fighting, for more than thirty-six hours, and the *garitas* and the heights of Chapultepec were still to be attacked and conquered before the capital could be reached. But Scott was enabled to have a still longer rest than he imagined. On the night of the 20th, a flag of truce came from the Mexicans, asking for an armistice and proposing peace. Ever desiring to secure a peace and save life, General Scott granted the armistice, making it terminable in forty-eight hours.

On the 21st, commissioners were appointed by the opposing commanders to negotiate a lengthened armistice, to enable overtures for peace to be received and considered. On the 22d, the commissioners met at Tacubaya, and, after considerable discussion, agreed upon sixteen articles for the duration and regulation of an armistice. This was to continue as long as negotiations were engaged in by the two governments, or until the commander of either army gave formal notice to the other

of the cessation of the armistice, and for forty-eight hours afterwards. Prisoners were to be exchanged and guaranties given that property would be respected by the invading forces. The articles of the armistice were signed by both commanders, and commissioners were at once appointed by the Mexican government to meet and open negotiations with Mr. N. P. Trist, the American commissioner, who had accompanied the army in its march to the capital. They met on the 25th of August; but the question of boundary prevented the desired result. The Mexican commissioners would consent to any thing almost but the surrender of the disputed territory in Texas. Negotiations were continued until the 2d of September, when Mr. Trist handed in his *ultimatum*, and the commissioners adjourned to meet on the 6th. But, in the mean time, events occurred which hastened the resumption of hostilities.

About the 1st of September, some infractions of the truce took place, which General Scott passed by upon the receipt of apologies. But hearing that Santa Anna had commenced the strengthening of his defences in the city, he sent him a note on the 6th, informing him that hostilities would commence the next day at twelve o'clock. Having learned that many church-bells had been sent to the foundry at Casa Mata to be cast into guns, and that immense quantities of powder, balls, and other military stores, were arriving at the same place, General Scott determined to attack it, as well for the sake of the guns and stores as to cut off all communication between the city and the castle of Chapultepec.

The position of the Mexicans at the Casa Mata and the Molino del Rey was a very strong one. The right rested upon the foundry and fortress of Casa Mata, at the base of a ridge. The left rested on the strong stone buildings of Molino del Rey, directly under the guns of the castle. Midway between the two was a powerful field-battery, supported on both sides by infantry. Most of the defences were skilfully masked, and therefore the reconnoissance of them by General Scott was far from being satisfactory. The plan of attack was arranged, however, by General Scott, and General Worth was appointed to execute it at the head of three thousand two hundred men.

The troops started at three o'clock on the morning of the 8th of September, and so well was all arranged that they were

in all their appointed positions by daylight. The report of the heavy guns, very soon after the dawn of day, gave the signal for the assault. So heavy were the discharges, that in a short time masses of masonry fell with tremendous noise, and the whole line of intrenchments began to shake. The Mexicans returned the fire in rapid succession, unfolding at intervals batteries and systems of defence of which their enemies had before no knowledge. Meanwhile, Major Wright, at the head of the assaulting party, dashed down the slope of an eminence upon which he was posted, amid the shouts of the Americans. At the same time, the Mexicans opened their central batteries with terrible effect, and, as Wright led on his men to the attack, the storm seemed to threaten their entire destruction. But they rushed on, gained the lines, drove infantry and artillery before them at the point of the bayonet, seized the large field-batteries, drove off the cannoneers, and trailed its guns upon the retreating masses. But, after retreating a short distance, the Mexicans suddenly halted, rallied, and, seeing the small force by which they were attacked, returned to the conflict with new energy. The little party was almost overwhelmed by the masses of the Mexicans, and eleven out of the fourteen officers composing the command, and privates in proportion, were struck down by a tremendous fire. The party was thrown into confusion; but General Worth ordered up Cadwalader's brigade and the light battalion, and these troops, coming into action at a seasonable moment, saved the remnant of Wright's men. The struggle was obstinate, but short. The Mexicans were again routed, and their central works fully carried and occupied. The attack was equally successful at the left, on Molino del Rey. The works were carried, and the Mexicans driven towards Chapultepec. The Casa Mata was found to be a far stronger work than first supposed, and the assailants were driven back with the loss of at least one-third of their number. But the capture of the other works enabled the Americans to concentrate their strength, and the enemy were forced to abandon it after a short but destructive fire. Every part of the defences was thus in possession of the assailants.

The greatness of this achievement may be made apparent from a statement of the strength of the opposing forces and the results of the victory. The entire line of strong fortresses



STORMING OF MOLINO DEL REY.

captured was defended by fourteen thousand men, with all the means necessary for defence ; yet they were carried by three thousand two hundred men. The loss of the Mexicans was about three thousand, exclusive of a great number who deserted after the rout. Eight hundred prisoners, including fifty-two commissioned officers, were taken. Generals Valdarez and Leon, the second and third in command, were killed. A great quantity of stores of all kinds and all the guns fell to the victors. But these results were not obtained without a severe loss on the part of the assailants. Nine officers and one hundred and seven men were killed ; forty-nine officers and six hundred and fifteen men wounded, and there were eighteen rank and file missing.

The capture of the works at Molino del Rey left no obstruction to the attack on the city but the castle of Chapultepec. This fortress was now cut off from all immediate communication with the city. It was on a natural mound of great height, strongly fortified at its base, acclivities, and passes. Besides a numerous garrison, it contained the military college, with a large number of students. The capture of this castle was resolved upon by General Scott, and the plan devised with his usual skill. The assault was the first of a series of brilliant achievements, continuing more than two days, ending in the capitulation of the city, to which General Scott gave the name of the battle of Mexico. We must content ourselves with a brief sketch of these events, the intricacy of the movements and the extent of the battle preventing any thing like a detail of them. It is apparent, however, that this two days' fight was one of the most remarkable displays of the science and abilities of a general and the daring and heroism of soldiery to be found in the annals of war.

The assault upon Chapultepec began early on the 12th of September. The two divisions that moved to the attack in different directions were commanded by Generals Quitman and Pillow. A bombardment and cannonade was opened upon the castle at an early hour, but stopped when the assault commenced. The Mexicans opened all their batteries as the Americans rushed forward to the attack, and the fire was tremendous. But the assailants pushed on up the broken ascent, over rocks and mines, and soon carried a redoubt. General Pillow



STORMING OF CHAPULTEPEC.

was struck down by a grape-shot; but he was carried along with his party up the height, the troops being led by General Cadwalader. The assault was rapidly conducted, and the men of Pillow's division reached the castle first. Many were thrown from the walls; but the stream that followed soon took their places, and planted the colours of the United States on the highest walls. The other division, under Quitman, had more serious work. The batteries and works at the foot of the hill were only carried after a desperate struggle. Seven pieces of artillery, one thousand muskets, and five hundred and fifty prisoners, including one hundred officers, were the results of the victory at the lower batteries. About eight hundred prisoners, including one major-general and six brigadiers, and a great number of inferior officers, were captured by Pillow's division. The forces in and around Chapultepec amounted to six thousand

men, under the veteran General Bravo. Of the number, eighteen hundred were either killed, wounded, or taken prisoners.

The capture of Chapultepec opened to the American army the direct road to the western and southern portions of the city, which points now became the objects of attack. Aware of the importance of improving upon the impression made upon the enemy by so heavy a loss, General Scott determined to waste no time, but to press on immediately to the decisive assault.

Two great routes lead from Chapultepec to the capital. That on the right enters the Belen with the Piedad road from the south; the second, obliquing to the left, intersects the great western or San Cosme road, in a suburb outside the San Cosme gate. Each of these routes is an elevated causeway, having a double road on the sides of an aqueduct of strong masonry, of great height, and resting on open arches and massive pillars, affording fine points both for attack and defence. In addition to this, the sideways of both aqueducts were defended by many strong breastworks, both at the gates and before reaching them, the whole presenting a chain of breastworks, every link of which would have to be broken before the city could be entered.

The attack upon the city was made by two divisions. One, under General Worth, advanced along the road to the San Cosme gate; the other, under General Quitman, took the Tacubaya road, which led to the Belen gate. The troops of both divisions were exposed to a tremendous fire from the Mexican batteries; but they pressed on without faltering, and battery after battery was either silenced or captured. In the mean time, as part of the plan of attack, General Twiggs diverted the attention of the Mexicans by an incessant cannonade against the southern side of the city. At length the strong fortress of San Cosme was carried by Worth and his followers, and shouts announced his entrance into Mexico. Quitman met with a more obstinate resistance, being opposed at the Belen gate by General Santa Anna in person. The ammunition of the advance of the troops gave out, and they were exposed to a destructive fire until the deficiency was supplied. The garita was carried with a severe loss, and then darkness fell upon the scene. The Mexicans ceased firing, and the troops of Quitman's division set about erecting batteries to maintain their



GENERAL QUITMAN.

position within the city. Worth was well prepared to continue the attack ; but soon after his heavy guns were placed in a favourable position, a flag came from the municipality, the bearer of which stated that the government and the army had evacuated the city. All firing ceased upon the receipt of this flag. Worth's loss during the day was two officers killed and ten wounded, with one hundred and twenty-nine rank and file, killed, wounded, and missing. Quitman's loss was five hundred and forty men, of whom seventy-seven, including eight officers, were killed, four hundred and fifty-four wounded, and nine missing.

On the morning of the 14th of September, General Scott gave orders to Generals Worth and Quitman to advance cautiously towards the heart of the city. In obedience to these orders, Quitman proceeded to the grand plaza and hoisted the flag of the United States upon the national palace. General

Worth halted within three squares of the goal of general ambition. The remainder of the army, under the personal direction of Major-General Scott, soon followed the advanced divisions, and the entrance was conducted amid the sounds of the national music of the United States. Immediately upon entering, the troops were fired upon from the roofs of houses, windows, and corners of the streets, by a large number of convicts, liberated by the flying government. In spite of the exertions of the Mexican authorities, the fire was not stopped until many of the Americans were killed or wounded. General Scott issued a proclamation, as soon as he was fixed in quarters, enforcing rules of order upon the soldiers, and calling on the men to return thanks to God for their important conquests. General Quitman was appointed governor, and the citizens returned to their homes satisfied with the prospect of peace.

The army that took possession of the city of Mexico was only six thousand strong! The numerous garrisons and the heavy losses in battle had reduced it to that number. This small force had beaten more than thirty thousand men, posted in the strongest positions; killed or wounded more than seven thousand officers and men; taken three thousand seven hundred and thirty prisoners, including thirteen generals and a large number of inferior officers; captured one hundred and thirty-two pieces of cannon, twenty thousand small arms, and an immense quantity of ammunition and other stores. The most celebrated and glorified actions which have occurred in the campaigns of Napoleon or Wellington might well shrink in comparison with the display of generalship on the part of General Scott, or of heroic daring and rapidity of execution on the part of his officers and men, to be found in the history of these battles.

Upon the same day the capital was taken, the small force left in the works at the city of Puebla was besieged by the Mexicans, and the fire kept up until the arrival of General Santa Anna on the 22d of September. The fire was returned by the besieged with considerable effect, though the small force was reduced to great straits. On the 25th, Colonel Childs, the commander of the garrison, was summoned to surrender, which he declined. Santa Anna then opened his batteries upon the

American works, and the fire was so extensive and constant that the most untiring vigilance was necessary on the part of the garrison. The bombardment and cannonade continued with undiminished energy until the 12th of October, when General Lane arrived with reinforcements for the wearied garrison. The siege of Puebla lasted forty days, and was the longest single military operation of the war. The result will appear astonishing, when it is remembered that it was sustained by about four hundred troops, encumbered with eighteen hundred sick, and deficient in supplies, against an army, according to Santa Anna's statement, eight thousand strong. General Lane had several encounters with the enemy on the road from Vera Cruz, and defeated them, although in much superior force. In one of these skirmishes, Captain Walker, the noted Texan ranger, was killed. The guerillas were very active, and, doubtless, their partial success kept up the spirits of the Mexicans and delayed the conclusion of a peace.

The abortive attempts of Mr. Trist to establish peace, immediately after the battles of Contreras and Churubusco, did not terminate his mission as a negotiator with the Mexican republic. Efforts were made both by himself and General Scott, from time to time, for the purpose of bringing about so desirable a result. These were at length crowned with success. In January, the general-in-chief laid before the Mexican authorities the basis of a treaty, similar in its general features to the one formerly rejected. They appointed Luis G. Cuevas, Bernardo Conto, and Miguel Atristain, as commissioners. Mr. Trist acted as the representative of the United States. The negotiators met at Guadalupe Hidalgo, and, after a reciprocal communication of their respective powers, arranged and signed a "treaty of peace, friendship, limits, and settlement, between the United States and the Mexican republic."

This treaty was ratified, with some amendments, by both governments, and by it the United States became possessed of the territories of California and New Mexico, paying therefor fifteen millions of dollars.



LOUIS PHILIPPE.

THE FRENCH REVOLUTION OF 1848 AND '49.



THE year 1848 will ever be noted as the period during which the people of the majority of the European states made the most desperate and the most heroic exertions to break down the power of their kings, or, at least, to secure constitutional governments. A general calm pervaded Europe during the latter part of 1847, as if the elements of a storm were gathering their strength for one tremendous burst. The king of France, under the guidance of his able minister,

Guizot, directed his efforts constantly to two great ends, to concentrate as much power in the executive branch of the government as possible, and to maintain peace with the European nations. In the accomplishment of the first object, the rights of the people were subject to constant and growing encroachment. Paris was strongly fortified, and defended by more than a hundred thousand armed troops. Nothing appeared less likely than a successful revolution of the people; and, therefore, the convulsion which soon took place was the more astonishing to the

government and foreign observer. But the seeds of republicanism were sown deep in the minds of the lower classes of the French people, and all the excesses of the Reign of Terror could not eradicate their hatred of tyranny, or their belief in the republican doctrines. There were able and eloquent men who sided with them in their opinions and feelings, and the chamber of deputies was the scene of many exciting debates upon the measures of the government.

For some time previous to the revolution of February, signs of discontent began to manifest themselves. A desire for parliamentary reform pervaded all classes of the people, and not less than sixty-two reform banquets were held in various towns during the fall of 1847. But none of these demonstrations was of sufficient magnitude to warrant an opinion of any serious result, and the government persevered in its measures. Emboldened by the enthusiasm displayed at these banquets, the leaders of the opposition resolved on holding a monster banquet at the capital. Then the government became alarmed, and resolved to prevent this display of the friends of liberty. Military preparations were made on the most extensive scale; guns mounted on all the fortresses around Paris; large stores of ammunition provided, and no means of preserving order neglected.

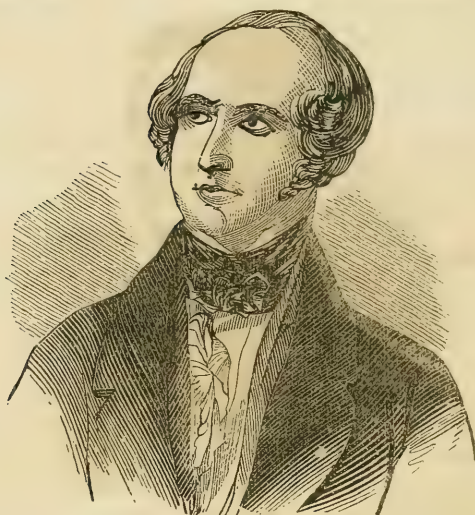
On the 29th of December, 1847, the chambers met. The debate on the address in reply to the king's speech occupied nineteen sittings. On the 12th of February, the opposition members refused to vote on the address; but they assembled the next day, and resolved unanimously not only on attending the monster banquet, but also, that no member of their party should participate in presenting the address to the king, even if chosen by lot. Before adjourning, they fixed upon Tuesday, the 22d of February, as the day of the banquet, and invited the national guard and the students of the universities to be present. This increased the alarm of the government, and the national guard were forbidden to take part in the banquet. But this measure only increased the firmness and determination of the opposition. Early on the 22d of February, crowds of people moved towards the Champs Elysees, and, at noon, the vast area between the chamber of deputies and the Madeleine church was thronged by about thirty thousand people. The banquet was dropped by the popular leaders, but, at noon, a procession was formed, which



GUIZOT.

proceeded to the hotel where the meetings of the opposition were held. Another body of the people succeeded in gaining the interior of the chamber of deputies. These the troops ejected, and the mob retired, shouting "Down with Guizot," and singing the Marseillaise hymn of liberty. All efforts to disperse the crowds of people were useless, and they laughed at the soldiers while they began to barricade the streets. The skirmishing continued all the afternoon: but, by midnight, all Paris was in possession of the soldiery. The next morning, the conflict commenced in earnest. Barricades were erected at every feasible time and place, and all kinds of missiles accumulated for use against the troops. The national guard declared for the people, and shouted loudly for reform. Several times during the day, were the national guard and the municipal troops on the point of coming in collision. The latter, however, always retreated. The people prevailed, and it was announced that Guizot had dissolved his cabinet.

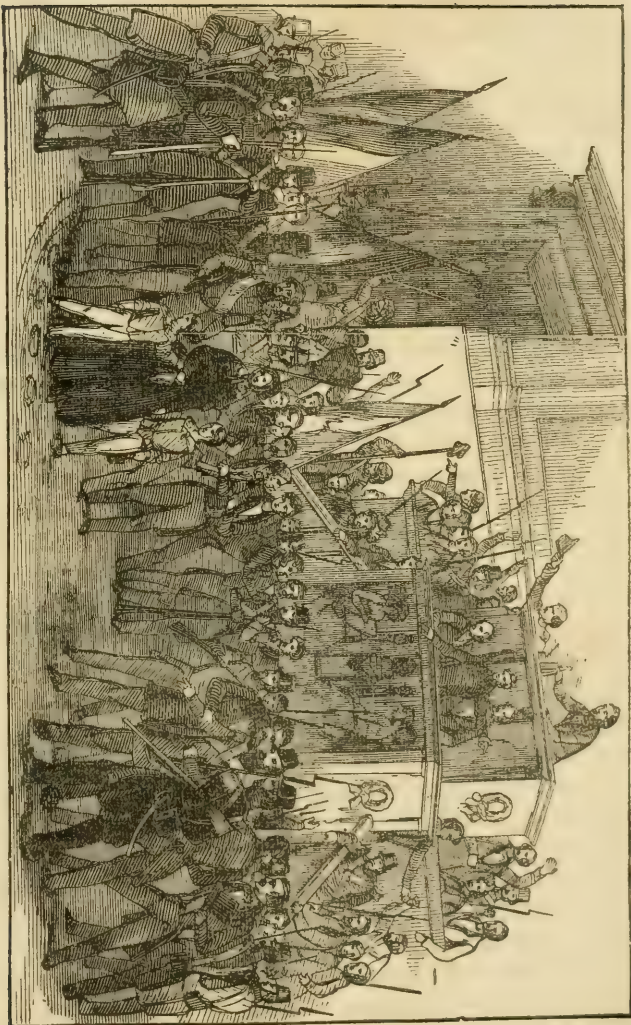
For a while, it was thought peace would be restored. But about ten o'clock at night, the troops of the line, no doubt irritated by the people, fired upon them at the Hotel des Etrangers, and fifty of their number fell dead or wounded. This roused the mob to seek revenge, in the same manner that the Boston massacre hastened the American revolution. Now burst the



ODILLON BARROT.

storm so long pent up. The work at the barricades was renewed with ardour, and on the following morning, the 24th, there was not a single leading street without a fortress. The national guards were called to their posts, and the defences of the municipal guards were attacked and taken. Meanwhile the attempts to form a new ministry failed. Even the appointment of Thiers could not calm the storm, although he accepted Odillon Barrot as one of his cabinet. The whole population was armed, and by twelve o'clock, on Thursday the 24th, the military power had passed from the government. The dense crowd moved towards the Tuileries and the Palace Royal. The whole of that quarter of the town was invested. At one o'clock, a proclamation was posted, declaring that the king had abdicated in favour of the count de Paris, with the duchess of Orleans as regent.

But it was too late. Neither the dynasty nor its palace could be saved by so tardy a concession. Red flags were here and there hoisted among the mob, with the word republic rudely traced upon them. The ominous cry began to swell, "To the gallows with Louis Philippe!" At half past twelve, the attack on the Palace Royal commenced, and for an hour the firing upon it was excessive. It was carried by storm, and at the same



THE DUCHESS OF ORLEANS AND HER CHILDREN AT THE CHAMBER OF DEPUTIES.



time the Tuileries surrendered without resistance. As the people entered on one side, Louis Philippe with his family escaped on the other. The national guard marched in with their muskets shouldered, the muzzle downwards, followed by thousands of the people. A general ransacking of the royal apartments commenced; conducted with a strange mixture of order, enthusiasm, and inconsistency.

In the chamber of deputies, the scene on Thursday was most extraordinary. It was not an inapt repetition of what occurred in the constitutional assembly, on the 10th of August, 1792, and of the decisive blow struck by Bonaparte on the 18th, when with his grenadiers he turned the legislative body out of doors. At one o'clock the president took the chair, upwards of three hundred members being present. They gazed on each other with mingled anxiety, alarm, and exultation. Half an hour afterwards, the duchess of Orleans entered with her two sons, and the dukes of Nemours and Montpensier. The young count de Paris came first, led by one of the deputies. With great difficulty way was made for him amid the crowd of officers and soldiers of the national guard. His appearance at the door caused a strong sensation, which soon broke forth into murmurs and hostile exclamations. Several of the people, however, rushed into the chamber with the young count, and placed him under the tribune. Immediately after the duchess of Orleans entered and seated herself in a chair, with her two sons beside her. By this time the passages and every vacant space was filled with such of the populace as had succeeded in pressing themselves in along with the national guard. The chamber was agitated in every part. M. Dupin arose, and announced the abdication of the king, and the regency of the duchess of Orleans. The scene that followed this announcement baffles description. One voice was heard above the others exclaiming, "It is too late." The duchess and her children now appeared amid a group of deputies, the national guards hastened to surround the royal family. The debate commenced, one long and stormy. During its progress a crowd rushed into the chamber, composed of national guards in arms and citizens carrying sabres, guns, swords, and flags. So great was the excitement that many of the deputies hastily retired, together with the duchess and her sons.

Lamartine and Ledru Rollin ascended the tribune, and wrote out the names of members of a provisional government. The deputies then retired.

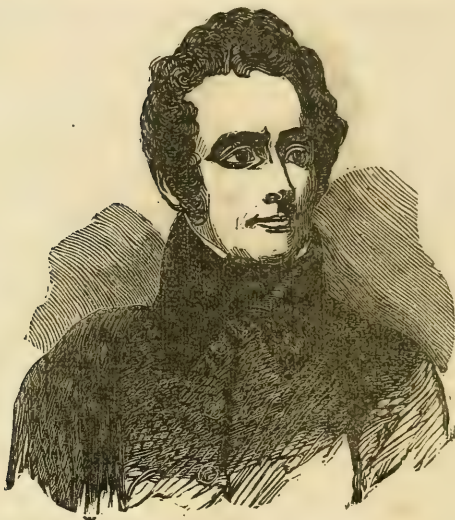
At the Hotel de Ville, another terrible scene occurred. There the members of the provisional government met, to decide what course to adopt. The people demanded aloud that the first act of the members should be communicated to them. The majority of the members were opposed to an unmitigated democracy, but the people were inflexible in their demands. The president, M. Dupont de l'Eure, was compelled to give up the attempt to be heard, when he recommended the republic in its less democratic form, and he was so exhausted that he twice fainted. M. Marie met with no better success. Finally, after the most untiring exertions, the provisional government was announced to consist of Dupont de l'Eure, Lamartine, Arago, Marrast, Ledru Rollin, Garnier Pages, Flocon, and Louis Blanc; and the democratic republic was proclaimed and received with unparalleled unanimity. Universal suffrage was established; the death penalty abolished; and other popular measures adopted. On the day after the battle, the 25th of February, order was in a great measure restored through the exertions of Lamartine, who addressed the people five times from the windows of the Hotel de Ville, and thus prevented an outbreak. But it was a terrible struggle. The more violent of the mob demanded the destruction of the provisional government. The triumph of the oratory of Lamartine was complete, however, and calmness and order took the place of violence and confusion. Business revived, and the principal personages who had adhered to the late king gave in their submission to the republican government.

On the following Sunday, the 27th of February, a general holiday and festivity was celebrated. The provisional government reviewed the national guards, and in the evening there was a general illumination. The week succeeding the revolution was occupied by the provisional government in restoring public confidence. Twenty thousand of the most indigent youth of Paris were quickly enrolled, and marched off to the frontier, and thus was the public peace secured from the outbreaks of an idle and starving populace. On Saturday, the 4th of March, the funeral obsequies of those who fell among the people during the revolution were conducted with much pomp and ceremony.



LEDRU ROLLIN.

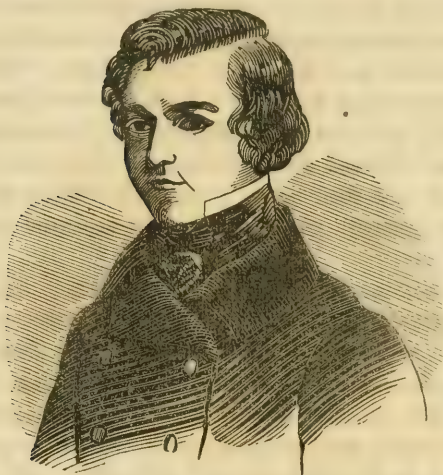
Peace being restored, it became necessary to adopt measures for the election of permanent officers of the republic. This was a gigantic task. A people were to choose rulers, who had been unaccustomed to ruling themselves. The mode of ballot, and the qualifications of electors and candidates were to be arranged. The 23d of April was named as the day of the election. A new constitution was to be drawn up by the constituent assembly of the people. The number of representatives was to be nine hundred. Suffrage was to be direct and universal, and all citizens twenty-five years old were eligible, if possessed of civil rights. The ballot was to be secret. Ledru Rollin opposed the decree containing the above provisions, and issued an incendiary proclamation, which was disavowed by the other members of the provisional government. He even threatened to call the people to resist and overthrow the government, but was deterred for the time by the determination of Garnier Pages, who threatened to shoot him if he did. It was soon apparent that the working classes were dissatisfied with the quiet which succeeded the revolution. Trees of liberty were planted in various parts of Paris, illuminations and firing of artillery took place at night, and the spirit of anarchy was kept alive by inflammatory addresses issued by the socialist and red republican leaders, among whom Ledru Rollin was the most conspicuous.



LAMARTINE.

On Saturday, April 16th, an attempt was made to overthrow the moderate section of the government, but the plot was defeated by the prompt and cordial manner in which the national guard, numbering more than two hundred thousand men, rallied to the support of the government. Lamartine and his colleagues found themselves much strengthened by the attempt to break down their power, and they were enabled to bring the troops of the line back to Paris, with the approbation of the citizens. On Thursday, April 20th, the great fête to celebrate the return of the troops of the line took place. Three hundred thousand armed men, and as many spectators, were mingled together for seven or eight hours, with the greatest cordiality. A grand illumination took place in the evening.

Meanwhile the election for representatives to the national assembly came off on the day appointed. The moderate republicans gained a complete triumph. Lamartine was chosen by nine cities, as their representative, and all candidates who had over two thousand votes were declared members of the assembly. On the 4th of May, the republic was officially proclaimed, amid the firing of artillery and the shouts of the people; and, on the following day, the members of the provisional government tendered their resignations from office, and received the thanks of



LOUIS BLANC.

the nation. The assembly then appointed five of their number as an executive committee, in the place of the provisional government. Their names were, Arago, Garnier Pages, Marie, Lamartine, and Ledru Rollin.

Several serious riots occurred at Rouen, Elbœuf, and other manufacturing towns, which were not suppressed without bloodshed. They were instigated by the socialist and communist leaders, who clung to their theories with a tenacity undiminished by defeat, and watched the moment for establishing them by force of arms. The celebrated Louis Blanc was one of the most active of these men, and contributed as much as any one else to bring about the struggle between the workingmen and the middle classes. The first serious manifestation of the feeling of the socialists and red republicans occurred on the 15th of May. A large meeting was held in the capital, to express sympathy for the Polish patriots who had lately attempted a revolution. The wildest excitement prevailed, and the national assembly was denounced in the most bitter terms. About fifty thousand persons followed a committee to the national chamber, where they demanded that France should interfere in the Polish quarrel. The greatest uproar and excitement filled the chamber, as the crowds rushed in and were cheered on by the leaders of the clubs. An

attempt was made to get up a provisional government composed entirely of socialists and communists, and the assembly dispersed amid the clamour and threats of the populace. The national guard promptly rallied for the republic, and were joined by the "garde mobile" and the troops of the line. Lamartine headed them, and was received with enthusiasm. In a short time, the mob dispersed, and their most prominent leaders, Barbés, Albert, Blanqui, Raspail, and Sobrier, were captured and thrown into prison.

Other commotions followed at various periods, which served to show the state of feeling existing between the red republicans and the moderates. Another party was soon added to these, occasioned by the election of Louis Napoleon Bonaparte to a seat in the national assembly. A paper was started to advocate his cause, and mobs, shouting for an emperor, were only dispersed by the soldiers with difficulty. But the great struggle was yet to come. The workingmen, imbued with the spirit of socialism and communism, had engaged in the revolution of February with the hope that their favourite theories would be put in practice, and that they would reap the greatest benefit from it. In their view, the revolution was fruitless, since the doctrines of the moderate republicans had triumphed. On the other hand, the middle classes were satisfied with the results of the revolution, and were determined to resist all attempts to disturb the order of things. Both parties prepared themselves for a desperate contest.

The first hostile demonstration occurred on the 22d of June. A body of workmen appeared before the palace of the Luxembourg, and demanded to see the executive committee. M. Marie consented to receive five of their number, but the interview was fruitless to both parties. The workmen then gathered a great crowd, and proceeded through the streets, shouting "Down with the executive committee!" Towards evening, the mob had increased to such a size that an additional military force was called out and kept under arms all night. The next morning it was found that the rioters had erected barricades in every quarter of the city, and were preparing for a struggle. The battle began at the Porte St. Dennis, which was barricaded very strongly and defended with obstinacy. The troops triumphed, however, and the barricades were carried at the point

of the bayonet. Boys and women took part with the insurgents, and several of them were distinguished for their bravery and the ardour with which they fought.

The executive committee met at the Luxembourg, and appointed General Cavaignac commander-in-chief of all the forces in and around Paris. He was allowed to take what steps he deemed proper without interference from the civil authorities. On Saturday, the insurgents continued their operations with persevering tenacity of purpose at St. Marceau, St. Antoine, St. Dennis, and other points. The assembly appointed General Cavaignac dictator, and declared Paris in a state of siege. Before Saturday evening, the general had suppressed the insurrection on the left bank of the Seine and the Cite. But the most terrible struggle was at the Clos St. Lazarre. The assailants fought with a desperation rarely equalled, and at four o'clock two hundred men of one battalion of the "garde mobile" had fallen. At six o'clock, the national guards joined their friends in a grand effort on the Clos St. Lazarre. Before this, a party, led by General Cavaignac in person, carried the first barricade of the Faubourg St. Antoine; but the stronger position could not be reduced. The slaughter at this point was terrible.

The appearance of Paris at this time was dreary in the extreme. At least three hundred thousand troops were under arms against one hundred and twenty thousand insurgents. One-fourth of the city had been ruined to build barricades, and garrisoned so as to be impassable. General Cavaignac suppressed several papers which were disseminating political discord, and endeavouring to inflame the passions of the people, and strictly forbid all placards but those issued by the government. On Sunday, the contest at the Pantheon was of the most determined character. For fifteen hours the firing continued incessant, and the slaughter on both sides was appalling. At length military discipline triumphed, and the street was cleared. The prisoners taken by the insurgents were horribly mutilated by them; but it must be remembered that the workmen were maddened by starvation and the instigation of bad men. At this stage of the rebellion, the archbishop of Paris offered to go among the insurgents and try to restore order. The offer was accepted, and the archbishop proceeded to the



ARCHBISHOP OF PARIS.

Place de Bastille, bearing a proclamation of General Cavaignac that hostilities should cease. The firing ceased on both sides; but, during the cessation, the combatants came within reach of each other and got into personal scuffles. Suddenly the firing recommenced. The prelate, thus placed between the two parties, received a shot in the groin, and was borne away mortally wounded. This event caused regret on both sides—the insurgents declaring they did not intend to injure him.

On Monday morning, the conflict was renewed with desperate valour on both sides. But Generals Cavaignac and Lamoriciere captured the barricades one after another, and before night the insurgents were either killed, captured, or dispersed, and the insurrection was suppressed. More than twenty thousand people had fallen in the four days' contest, and the number of prisoners embarrassed the government. Lamartine and the other members of the executive committee displayed great courage and activity during the trying time, and well deserved the thanks of the nation. The remainder of the week was employed in burying the dead, repairing damages done to the city, and restoring order. Troops continued to pour into Paris for



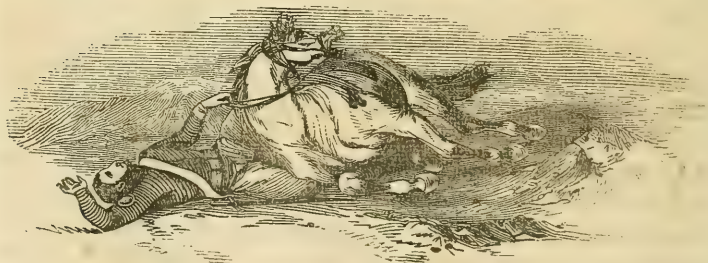
GENERAL NEGRIER.

some days subsequent to the suppression of the revolt, until their number amounted to three hundred thousand men. General Cavaignac resigned his absolute power to the assembly on the 29th; but such was the gratitude of the people for his services, that he was immediately created president of state, with authority to name his officers. General Changarnier was appointed commander-in-chief of the national guards. Guards were placed at the end of every street to prevent the assassination of citizens by the disaffected. The energy of General Cavaignac was fully displayed in crushing every manifestation of a renewal of the disturbances, and in his determination to maintain law and order. The 14th of July was appointed for the holding of a great banquet, in which two hundred thousand workmen were to take part. Its occurrence was prevented by a disclosure that a plot existed to assassinate all the members of the national assembly and the heads of government. The great number of soldiers on duty in Paris and the vigorous measures of the government dampened the courage of the workmen.

Many distinguished men fell in the four days' battle with the insurgents; but none was more lamented than General Negrier. He fought bravely upon the side of order, and was shot dead

while advancing towards a barricade at the head of his men. General Charbonnel, a member of assembly, was mortally wounded at his side. He was interred with the greatest honours paid to the illustrious dead.

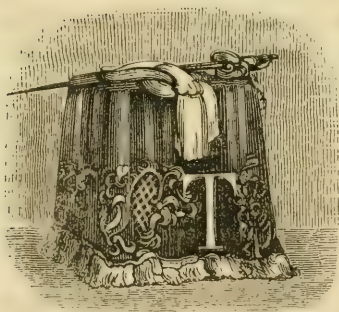
The good results of the revolution were not appreciated by the great mass of the French people, until the constitution of the republic had been framed and adopted by the national assembly. Then a feeling of confidence and security took the place of fear and excitement, and all kinds of business revived. The constitution was proclaimed on Sunday, the 12th of November, 1848. The election for president of the republic took place on the 10th of December. The principal candidates were Louis Napoleon Bonaparte, General Cavaignac, and Ledru Rollin. Nearly eight million votes were polled, of which Louis Napoleon Bonaparte received six million. The quiet with which the election was conducted gave promise of the entire restoration of order and harmony to the nation. The newly elected president, Bonaparte, was formally proclaimed as the head of the republic on the 20th of December. He selected Odillon Barrot to form a ministry, and thus, after a year of extraordinary exertion, was France changed from a monarchy, with a titled nobility, to a constitutional republic, with the people placed upon an equality, which can only be destroyed by wealth or talent.





PRINCE WINDISCHGRATZ.

THE INSURRECTIONS IN GERMANY.



HE news of the February revolution in France threw all Germany into commotion. The success of the French people stimulated the Germans to make strenuous efforts to secure their rights. The idea of a union of all the German states into one confederacy was long a favourite one with the people

of the various states. They now demanded a new civil and criminal code for all Germany, ratifying, among other things, the freedom of the press, trial by jury and publicity in all judicial proceedings, representative government in the several states, with the right of voting taxes vested in the people alone, civil equality without distinction of creed, and, lastly, that the people, as well as the princes, should be represented in the council

of the German confederation. These demands were the old creed of the liberal party of Germany, for which they had suffered every kind of persecution. But they were now extorted, with more or less violence, in the space of three weeks, from every sovereign in Germany.

The first act of submission was made by the king of Wurtemberg, on the 3d of March, and the example was followed by his brother sovereigns in rapid succession; those of Bavaria and Hesse Darmstadt abdicated, after they had complied with the demands of their subjects. On the 13th, the old system perished in its metropolis, Vienna, after a street tumult (for it was not a fight) of three or four hours; and on the 18th the new order of things was established in Berlin, and consecrated by a lavish and gratuitous outpouring of blood.

The king of Saxony refused to grant the reforms demanded, and called out the troops; but they would not act against the people, and the king was forced to grant every thing. King Ernest, of Hanover, also refused all concessions when first pressed. He then talked of abdicating; but the Hanoverians were unmoved from their purposes by this threat, and the king resigned himself to his fate, consenting to receive Stübe as one of his ministers. This man had spent many years in prison for resisting the tyranny of the king of Hanover.

Serious riots had occurred in Bavaria on the 19th of February, occasioned by an insolent freak of Lola Montez, the king's mistress. Lola was compelled to quit Munich, and, having returned to it on the 9th of March, she was removed by the police. The king was compelled either to give up his fascinating mistress or to abdicate his throne; and the infatuated old monarch chose the latter alternative. The time for a people to bear with the insolent freaks of their rulers was past.

The revolution in Vienna began on the occasion of the opening of the diet for Lower Austria. The business of the day had not proceeded more than half an hour, when it was interrupted by a mass of people, who forced their way into the hall, clamouring for reform. Count Montecuculi, marshal of the diet, immediately went to the palace, followed by a crowd of people, to present a petition to the emperor, praying the same reforms as had been granted in other parts of Germany. The

archduke Ludwig, chief of the Home Department, informed the count that there was no disposition to make concessions. A cabinet council, however, was summoned, and the marshal of the diet and those who accompanied him waited in vain for its determination, from twelve to four o'clock. The people became exasperated by this delay; the students harangued them; the tumult continually increased. Suddenly the troops appeared and fired upon the unarmed multitude, killing and wounding a great number. Four pieces of cannon were planted on St. Stephen's Platz, and the gunners stood by them with lighted matches. Meanwhile, the alarum drum was beaten; the Burgher Guard appeared in arms, and were received by the populace with loud acclamations; but all further conflict was prevented by the announcement that Prince Metternich had resigned, that the emperor had acceded to the popular demands, and had confided the city to the keeping of the students and the burghers. A new ministry was formed under the presidency of Count Kolowrath, and various measures of grace were announced in rapid succession. An amnesty was declared in favour of all political prisoners in Galicia and the Lombardo-Venetian kingdom. One hundred and fifty Polish and Italian prisoners were dismissed from the fortress of Spielberg, infamous in the annals of Austrian despotism. The Secret Court of Police was abolished, and a letter was published from the minister, Baron Pillersdorf, to the police officers of all the Austrian provinces, in which he tells them that a great many of their former functions are now illegal. They are forbidden to employ spies, "since the free press will not fail to reveal dangerous conspiracies and plots, if any exist." Liberty of the person and a kind of *habeas corpus* are officially proclaimed in this letter.

The constitution was proclaimed on the 25th of April, and it secured those rights dearest to the mass of the people. The imperial parliament consisted of two houses, of which the lower one was constituted on the broadest democratic basis.

In Prussia, after the adjournment of the diet, the people of the Rhenish provinces broke out in loud cries for reforms, and these demands were echoed from Breslau, Königsberg, and Berlin. A great open-air meeting, held on the 13th of March in the capital, to petition for reform, ended in a tumult, in which the troops acted

with great violence. For nearly a week, Berlin was a continued scene of disorder. On the 15th, though the people offered little more than passive resistance, ten persons were killed and upwards of a hundred were wounded by the military. While such was the state of the capital, sanguinary riots were taking place also in Breslau and Königsberg. On the morning of the 18th, a deputation arrived in Berlin from Cologne, and at once waited on the king and presented a petition for reform. Frederick William having promised to accede to their demands, they replied, "We have been so often deceived and put off that we cannot wait any longer; we must insist on a proclamation being issued at once, or your majesty will cease to reign over the Rhenish provinces." The king was much hurt; but, after some parley, submitted.

He issued a proclamation, echoing the wish of the German people for a federal state, and granting a constitution based on liberal principles. This proclamation was received with every demonstration of satisfaction on the part of the Prussians. Crowds repaired to the palace, and the king appeared at a window and was received with tremendous cheers. Unluckily the shouts were mistaken by the soldiery for the signal of attack. Two regiments of dragoons endeavoured to force the people back, and some shots were accidentally fired. The effect was disastrous. Conceiving the existence of a design to massacre them, the masses rushed to arms at once. Barricades were erected, and riflemen posted on every house-top and in every window. The soldiery had always hated the *bourgeoise*, and were nothing loath to engage with them in a conflict. For fifteen hours, the people fought with valour and determination, and the soldiers with a fury only increased by resistance. No quarter was given on either side.

At five on the morning of the 19th of March, the king voluntarily desisted from the contest, without being actually defeated. At seven o'clock, a proclamation was issued, addressed to the citizens of Berlin, assuring them that the conflict was the result of an accident and a mistake, and entreating mutual forbearance on both sides. Crowds again thronged to the palace of the king, and he appeared and confided himself to their protection. The people received him cordially. An amnesty was announced. The military were sent out of the town,

a liberal ministry formed, and a burgher guard created, in which the students of the universities were incorporated. The people of Berlin were satisfied. The number of those who fell in the conflict on the popular side was about two hundred, of whom one hundred and eighty-seven received a public funeral. On the part of the military, the loss was three commissioned officers and seventeen non-commissioned officers and privates killed, and fourteen commissioned officers, fourteen non-commissioned, two hundred and twenty-five rank and file, and one surgeon wounded.

Frederick William had now virtually lost a battle against his own subjects. He hoped to raise his fallen dignity, however, by a bold stroke. On the 21st of March, he issued a proclamation, declaring in clear and forcible terms that he would head the grand movement for the regeneration of Germany. On the same day, the king, wearing the once-proscribed tricolour, rode through the streets of Berlin, and was received with enthusiasm.

A sudden feeling in favour of Poland broke out in Germany in the first days of the revolutionary fervour. On the 20th of March, the doors of the prison of Berlin were thrown open, and the condemned Poles came forth amid the shouts of the populace. Mierolawski and his companions were seated in a carriage, and the people drew them to the palace and the university. The patriots bore the black, red, and golden banner of the German republicans. A Polish deputation from Posen arrived in Berlin on the following day, and obtained a division of that duchy, so as to give the exiled Poles a home. Eight days after the Poles were liberated from the prison of Berlin a civil war broke out in Posen, between the people of that nation and the Germans. Both sides displayed the most savage cruelty, and the details are too horrid to relate. At last the line of demarcation between Polish and German Posen was settled, and the insurrection terminated on the 10th of May, by the capture of Mierolawski and the defeat of his band, the last remnant of a Polish army of thirty thousand men.

On the 31st of March, five hundred deputies from all parts of Germany held their first sitting at Frankfort, as the preliminary convention for the formation of a national parliament. It was resolved that a national assembly should be elected by

universal suffrage, and that any German should be eligible thereto for any part of Germany. Having made a few other arrangements, the convention adjourned, but left behind it a permanent committee of fifty, who, with seventeen "men of confidence," constituted from the beginning of April till the middle of May, the supreme council that governed Germany. A constitution for the collective German states was drawn up, and military operations directed against the armed republicans of Baden. The republicans were commanded by Hecker and Struve. The force of the confederation met them on the 20th of April, and, after General von Gageon had been treacherously murdered in a parley, totally routed them. Hecker escaped; Struve was taken prisoner, but soon after rescued. Friburg was stormed on the 24th, and Constanx was occupied on the same day. Herwegh, the poet and communist, arrived with his free corps from France too late to prevent the catastrophe. His own men (nine hundred) were totally routed on the 27th by a single company of Wurtemberg troops, with a loss of twenty-three killed and two hundred taken prisoners. Herwegh, with his wife, who was armed and in the fight, escaped to Switzerland.

The German parliament held its first sitting at Frankfort on the 18th of May, and on the 28th of June the parliament created the provisional central power for the administration of all affairs which affect the whole German nation. Archduke John of Austria was elected regent by a large majority. He was solemnly installed in office on the 12th of July.

For two months after the revolution in March, Vienna remained in a state of uninterrupted quiet. But the corruption of the emperor's advisers and the harangues and writings of republican leaders, kept the spirit of revolt alive in the minds of the people; and on the 15th of May the public feeling displayed itself in a fresh revolutionary movement. The students of the university took the lead. They demanded of the ministry that the military should be withdrawn from the city, that the central committee of the national guard should be maintained, and that the election law should be declared null and void. The ministers withstood these demands a whole day; but, finding themselves without force sufficient to resist the armed petitioners, who were joined by the national guard, they yielded, and at midnight the minister of the interior issued a

proclamation conceding all that was required. This was a virtual ratification of a new revolution, the constitution of April 25th being superseded, and it was settled that the diet should consist of but one chamber.

On the 16th of May, the emperor and his family absconded from the capital and fled to Innspruck, in the Tyrol. This event threw the ministers and the whole population of Vienna into a ferment, and messengers were despatched to entreat the fugitives to return, but they were obstinate. The aristocratic party had counselled the flight of the emperor, and they strove to make the event serve their reactionary projects. They spread stories of the ill treatment of the emperor by the Viennese through all the provinces, with the object of exciting a feeling of sympathy for him and a detestation of the liberals. A final stroke was then resolved upon to complete the work.

On the 25th of May, a rumour reached the Viennese that three regiments of the military were to enter the city by night, and universal alarm was created. The next day the academical legion received orders to disband within twenty-four hours. They refused to lay down their arms, and the gates of the town were shut and guarded by soldiers. But the workmen from the suburbs stormed them, and one of the assailants, a workman, was killed in the conflict. A general insurrection was begun, and barricades arose in every street. This state of things lasted until night, and ended in a complete victory of the people, whose conditions were again ratified by the ministers on the 15th. Things then assumed a comparatively quiet state. The barricades were removed, and business resumed. The emperor still remained at Innspruck; but he appointed his uncle, the archduke John, to represent him in the capital and open the assembly in his name. This was accordingly done on the 22d of July, in an amicable speech, by the archduke. The emperor was at last prevailed upon to return to Vienna, where he arrived on the 12th of August, and thus ended the second phase in the Viennese insurrection.

Two days before the rising in Vienna, a meeting was held in Prague, which adopted an address to the government, in which the equality of the Tchechs and Germans was required to be recognised by law, and representative and municipal reform, security for personal liberty, equality of all religious denomina-

tions, and other liberal measures, demanded by both the Tchechs and Germans, who forgot their national hatred for the time. A deputation carried the address to the government, which, at first, met it with evasive and dilatory compromises, but eventually granted all they desired. Bohemia was formed into a separate state, under the vice-royalty of Francis Joseph, the heir-presumptive to the empire. But the Tcschecks soon perceived that they reaped all the advantages of the reforms, and they set about striving to unite the whole Slavonic nation into one empire. They neglected to send a representative to the German national assembly, and circulated a proclamation inviting representatives of the Slavonic race from all the Austrian provinces, and even foreign states, to assemble at Prague on the 31st of May, to concert measures for protecting the independence of the Slavonic people from the encroachments of the Germans.

The congress opened on the 2d of June, and was abruptly closed on the 12th. The representatives were cordially unanimous in support of the measures proposed. A manifesto was issued to the nations of Christendom, declaring that they were about to form a central federation in Austria. The Viennese ministry declared the provisional government of Bohemia, which was created by the Slavonians, to be an illegal body, and its acts were therefore null and void. This challenge was answered, as it was intended it should be, by a general insurrection, which raged for five days. Nor was it subdued, until Prince Windischgratz, the Austrian commander, had bombarded Prague, and laid much of it in ruins. Prague relapsed into its former dependence on Vienna; the Slavonic congress was dispersed, and the holding of the Bohemian parliament postponed. The most horrid cruelties were practised by the insurgent Tchechs upon the soldiers they took alive. Almost the first shot fired in the insurrection killed the princess Windischgratz in her own apartment. The prince himself was seized and dragged to a lamp-post to be hung, but was rescued by his grenadiers. Five minutes afterwards, his artillery swept the streets of Prague.

War broke out in the latter part of August between the Hungarians and the Croats. Jellachich, the ban of Croatia, was attached to the government of Vienna, and the Magyars were forced to depend altogether upon their own exertions for success.

The diet sent a deputation to Vienna before the war broke out, but the Viennese assembly would not receive them, and the diet, deeply offended by the insult, conferred dictatorial powers upon Kossuth.

Jellachich, at the head of the Croat army, crossed the Drave, and, traversing all southern Hungary without meeting an enemy, he arrived at Stuhlweissenburg, within a day's march of Pesth, the capital of Hungary. He issued a proclamation on crossing the frontier, in which he said he invaded Hungary on his sole authority, and for the purpose of upholding a constitutional monarchy in opposition to the diet. Encouraged by the movement of Jellachich, the emperor of Austria resolved to put an end to the distractions in Hungary, as he called them. He appointed Count Lamberg to command all the forces in the kingdom. The diet resolved that the count's commission was illegal, and when he arrived at Pesth, in the latter part of September, he was attacked by a mob, killed, and his body dragged through the streets. It was soon discovered that the imperial government assisted Jellachich by secret subsidies, and the Magyars resolved to devote their strength to the resistance of his authority. At Pesth, every man took up arms, and even ladies worked in the trenches.

While Jellachich was waiting for artillery to lay siege to Pesth, he was attacked by an irregular force led by Mezzaros, the Hungarian minister of war, and a portion of his cavalry suffered severely. The ban then withdrew westward to Raab and Comorn, where he could command the Danube and the Vienna road to Buda. This movement was thought by the people of Vienna to be intended to back the reactionary movement of the government, and they murmured loudly against all measures adverse to Hungary.

In October, a regiment of German grenadiers, favourable to the cause of the people, was ordered to join the expedition against the Hungarians. They immediately concerted with the national guard and the academical legion, and it was resolved to prevent their departure. The confederates broke up the railway to some distance from the station, in the night, and erected a barricade where the soldiers would have to pass. In the morning, the grenadiers were ordered to storm the barricades, but, being joined by their friends, they attacked and routed the

government troops, and marched into the town. The insurrection became general, and the imperial forces were everywhere defeated. Count Latour, the minister of war, was butchered in the most horrible manner. On the 7th of October, every thing was in the hands of the people, and they might have chosen their own form of government. The emperor Ferdinand left Vienna on the 7th, leaving behind him an address to the diet, which promised to aid in crushing the insurgent populace, as soon as a force could be collected. The emperor took refuge with the Slavonians, and then declared open war against the German and Magyar rebels. Prince Windischgratz was appointed commander of all the forces of the empire, except the army in Italy.

Vienna was soon invested by Windischgratz, with one hundred thousand men, and one hundred and forty guns. Messenhauser and General Bem commanded the forces in the city. The attack began on the 28th of October, and, by the next day, the city was so far reduced that a suspension of hostilities was agreed upon while the besieged could deliberate upon a surrender. The greater portion of the forces and the city authorities agreed upon a surrender, and a disarming had begun on the 30th, when news that the Hungarian forces were advancing from Vruks broke off all thoughts of surrender, and the battle was renewed with vigour on both sides. The slaughter was dreadful. The whole city was not subdued until the 2d of November, when twenty-five hundred people had fallen on both sides, and a great quantity of property been destroyed. The Hungarians were driven off by Jellachich. No quarter was given by the savage imperialists, and the city was pillaged. For a week after the capture, Windischgratz sanctioned the commission of the worst crimes, and the court-martials were busy condemning prisoners to be hung, shot, or otherwise punished, with secrecy, as if conscious of committing murder, and not satisfying justice. Among their victims was Messenhauser, commander of the national guard, and Robert Blum, a member of the Frankfort assembly.

The imperial authority was now triumphant in Austria, but the lesson which the emperor had learned led him to adopt milder measures and more liberal policy than before the insurrection. All veneration for the person of Ferdinand, how-

ever, was at an end among the people, and it was deemed necessary by the ministry, that some measure should be taken to restore public confidence in the government. By their advice, Ferdinand abdicated the throne of Austria, on the 2d of December, and was succeeded by the son of the archduke Francis Charles, a young man only nineteen years old, who was proclaimed under the title of Francis Joseph I. The accession of the new emperor brought peace to all the Austrian states, except Hungary. The diet of that country denounced the emperor as an usurper, and both sides prepared for war.

The imperial generals collected all their forces, and enclosed Hungary in a ring of bayonets and cannon. The main army of invasion was led by Windischgratz, and there were others, under Schlich, Dahler, Puchner, Urban, and Wardener. On the part of the Hungarians, the most extraordinary exertions were made, stimulated by the eloquence of Louis Kossuth, the dictator, and the appeals of the diet. Having collected an army of fifty thousand infantry, with fifty-four cannon, and twelve hundred hussars, the Hungarians marched to the plains of Vienna, where a battle took place with an army of one hundred and thirty thousand Austrians, under Windischgratz. The Hungarians fought bravely, but were overpowered by numbers, and compelled to retire, leaving six thousand men dead upon the field. Defeat did not dishearten them; but, on the contrary, the enlistment and equipment of troops proceeded with wonderful rapidity. Even women joined the army, and fought in the subsequent battles. At the close of 1848, more than one hundred thousand Hungarians were in the field. But their forces were divided, while a solid army of one hundred thousand Austrians and Croats were advancing to their capital. Barricades were erected on the road to Pesth, but they were avoided by a roundabout march by the imperialists, and the Hungarians were compelled to leave their capital, after placing a garrison in the almost impregnable fortress of Comorn. A Hungarian army of sixty thousand men, under the young General Georgey, held the plains between the Danube and the Thiers. General Bem defended the rear, with fifteen thousand men.

We cannot follow the two armies in all their various movements. At first, the Hungarians were everywhere driven back, and their cause was regarded as hopeless. But they roused

themselves to still greater exertions, and began to act on the offensive. By skilful manœuvring, Bem regained Transylvania, driving out the Russians who were advancing in that direction. A two days' battle was fought near Eslan, and the Austrians claimed the victory, but they were without benefit from it. In the mean time, the valiant Georgey defeated the enemy opposed to him, in several brilliant engagements.

The Austrians now fell back in all directions, and were glad to escape from the Hungarian territory. Windischgratz was succeeded by Welden, said to be the best Austrian general. A great battle was fought on the twentieth and twenty-first of April, near Ofer, in which the Austrians were totally defeated, with the loss of twenty guns and two thousand prisoners. On the 24th, Dembinski, at the head of fifteen thousand Magyars and Poles, took possession of Pesth, amid the most extravagant demonstrations of joy on the part of the populace. The Austrians then raised the siege of Comorn.

The triumphant Magyars now made known the terms on which they would cease hostilities; but the imperial government refused to accede to them, and finding the whole strength of the empire unable to cope with the heroic defenders of their country, the assistance of the giant power of Russia was solicited and obtained. Unterrified by this array of power, the Hungarians nerved themselves for a last and glorious effort. Kossuth was chosen governor of Hungary, and the diet proclaimed their intention to establish a republic. On the 14th of May, Kossuth took the oath of office. According to the report of the minister of war, the Hungarian army consisted of three hundred and ninety-six thousand armed troops, commanded by Bem, Georgey, Dembinski, Perezel, Guyon, Klapka, Dannenburg, Gaspar, Vetter, and Aulich. There were sixty thousand cavalry, and more than four hundred pieces of artillery. The Austrians again made preparations for invasion. Welden was removed, and Baron Haynau appointed commander-in-chief. At the head of a large army, he marched down the Danube, captured several towns, and committed acts of the most atrocious cruelty. Jellachich, with an army of Croats, advanced from the south-west, and Prince Paskiewitch, at the head of the Russians, advanced from the north-east.

In the brief campaign which followed, the Magyars defeated



KOSSUTH.

the Croats under Jellachich, and, after a series of combats lasting four days, Bem compelled the imperialists to raise the siege of Peterwardein. The information of the defeat of Jellachich and the Croats was conveyed to Kossuth by Bem, in the words, Bem, Bam, Boom! The object of Kossuth was to unite the Hungarians, and fall upon each of the invading armies, and beat them before they could unite. But the plans of the governor were defeated by the obstinacy or treachery of Georgey. In his headstrong rashness, he was entangled between the armies of Haynau and Paskiewitch, and from this time the Hungarian cause began to droop. The diet threw its power into the hands of Georgey, who was proclaimed dictator. After a consultation at Arad, with Kossuth, Bem, and other leaders, he protested that the struggle was a hopeless one, and resolved to bring it to an end. The result was an unconditional surrender of his whole army into the hands of the Russians, and Hungary was betrayed.

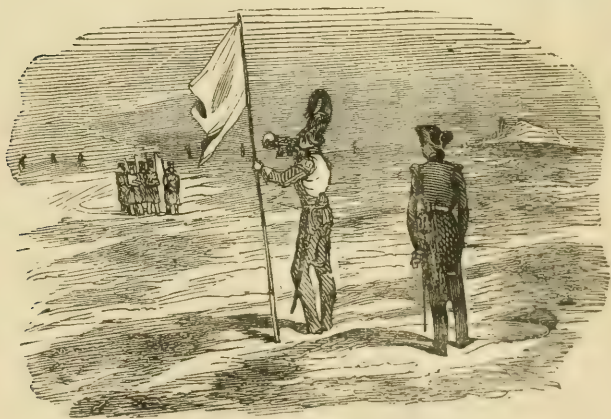


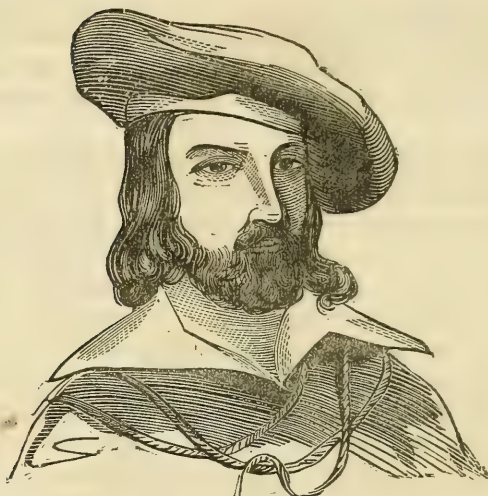
COUNT BATHYANL

Before this treacherous surrender, the garrison of Comorn sallied out, and captured the city and citadel of Raab, obtaining a complete triumph over the Austrians. But everywhere else, the Magyars were defeated by the Russians and Austrians. Bem and Guyon were surrounded by the Russians, but succeeded in making their escape. Dembinski was defeated in the north, and about sixteen thousand men surrendered to the Russians. The garrison of Comorn, under General Klapka, still held out, and was furnished to stand a long siege. They refused to surrender, except on the most favourable terms. Haynau and Radetski were opposed to each other on the question of granting terms. The ferocious Haynau wanted to storm, slay, and hang all that could be taken, but Radetski was humane as well as brave, and he opposed it. Humanity triumphed in this instance, and the garrison surrendered on good terms. Thus was the

revolution in Hungary completely subdued ; partly by the overwhelming numbers of the united Austrian and Russian forces, but principally by headstrong insubordination, or, as seems apparent from the unconditional surrender of Georgey, foul treachery.

With every thing at their mercy, the Austrians, at the instigation of the savage Haynau, acted with all the barbarity and cruelty that was only to be expected from an uncivilized nation. Combatants and non-combatants, priests, women, and children, fell victims to the insatiable thirst for vengeance, and were either put to death, thrown into prison, or scourged by the conquerors. Among the victims whose death excited much sympathy throughout the civilized nations, was the count Bathyani, Kossuth's minister of war. His execution was a murder without a shadow of justification, and it was conducted with all the barbarity which was possible, under the circumstances. The conduct of the Austrians excited universal detestation for that government throughout Christendom. Kossuth, Bem, Dembinski, and other leaders of the patriots, took refuge in Turkey, when they found that all was lost. The Sultan of Turkey protected them, and resisted, firmly, the demands for their surrender made by Russia and Austria.





GARIBALDI

INSURRECTIONS IN ITALY.



IN Italy, the year 1848 was from the outset marked with important events. First on the list is the massacre of Milan, to which we shall presently revert. On the 12th of January, the fete-day of King Ferdinand of Naples, the people of Palermo and all the great towns of Sicily rose simultaneously and drove out the Neapolitan troops. On the 28th, the Neapolitans received a constitution modelled on the French charter of 1830, but in some respects more liberal. The Sicilians were offered their share of this constitution, but they refused to accept it. They defeated all the royal troops sent against them; elected their own parliament, which was opened at Palermo, on the 25th of March, by Ruggiero Settimo, president of the provisional government; and on the 13th of the following month, the deposition of King Ferdinand and the independence of Sicily were formally decreed.

In Tuscany, a series of liberal measures was crowned on the

1st of February by the issue of a constitution better than any of the others granted by the four native princes of Italy to their subjects, and in one capital item superior to that framed for themselves by the Sicilians.

The Sardinians next obtained a constitution, which was published on the 5th of March, and Count Cesare Balbo, a well-known writer and statesman, was appointed to form a cabinet. Piedmont followed in the wake of the kingdom of Sardinia, but the constitution of that country gave more power to the executive than any of the others. In Rome, the constitution granted by the pope was proclaimed on the 15th of March, and on the same day the Jesuits were ordered to withdraw from the papal dominions. The new constitution, however, was far from being satisfactory to the people. The most objectional feature of it was the union of the civil and religious regulations. The difficulty of harmonizing the views of the pope with those of the people was frankly stated by the pope in the proclamation incorporating the constitution.

In the Lombardo-Venetian kingdom, resistance to the Austrian authorities began in the early part of January, 1848. Though unable to cope in arms with the Austrians, every occasion by which they could be annoyed was eagerly seized by the inhabitants of the kingdom. On the 3d of January, the Austrian soldiers were inflamed to such a pitch against the people, that they attacked and killed or wounded ninety-one persons. Five days after the massacre at Milan, another outrage occurred at Pavia. The soldiers attacked a funeral procession of the students, but there they suffered severely themselves. Other outrages followed, and a deep, intense hatred of the Austrians was roused in the breasts of the oppressed. Martial law was proclaimed, and the people of that beautiful country were ground by an unmerciful military despotism. When the news of the revolution in Vienna reached Milan, the people flocked to the government house, and demanded the release of all political prisoners, and the formation of a national guard. The soldiers fired at the crowd; a boy of sixteen drew out a pistol and fired at the soldiers, exclaiming "*Viva l'Italia!*" The shot and cry roused the people; they rushed forward, overpowered the guard, made the vice-governor prisoner, and planted the tri-coloured banner on the palace. Some Croats afterwards fired on

the people, and killed five or six of them. A general rising took place at once. Radetski withdrew his men to their respective barracks, undecided how to act. By the time he had decided, the city was barricaded. The Austrians numbered twelve thousand men, yet they acted on the defensive. The conflict raged day and night, until the evening of the 23d of March, when the Austrians were compelled to retire towards Vienna. The Milanese displayed the greatest bravery throughout the contest, and defeated twelve thousand Austrians, with cavalry and artillery, when they had not over five hundred guns and pistols. Their loss was about one hundred killed, and two hundred and fifty wounded.

The other cities of Lombardy followed the example of Milan, and Venice declared itself a republic. Mantua and Verona alone sheltered the Austrians. On the 27th, the vanguard of the Piedmontese army, under Charles Albert, arrived before Milan. But he refused to enter the city, until he had defeated the Austrians, which was not destined to be achieved by him.

The weakness of the administration of the provisional government of Lombardy was the principal cause of its short existence. Able men were displaced by the intrigues of weak ones, and the greatest confusion prevailed in all departments of the government. Parma, Modena, Tuscany, Rome, and Naples sent large contingents to the army under Charles Albert. But he neglected to prevent the concentration of the Austrian forces, although he forced their lines at several points. On the 18th of May, Charles Albert laid siege to Peschiera. The Austrians were beaten at Goito, in attempting a diversion in its favour. Peschiera was taken after two days' fighting, and Charles Albert took up his quarters there. These conquests were rendered of little avail, however, by the imbecility or treachery of Durando, the Roman general, who surrendered Vicenza to Radetski, although he knew an army was marching to his assistance, and he had a strong force within the city. Radetski soon became master of all the Venetian territory, except the capital, which was defended by the Neapolitans, under General Pepe.

In the beginning of July, the Piedmontese army occupied a line thirty miles in length; from Mantua on its right, to Rivoli on its left. General Bava defeated four thousand Austrians near Governolo; but this only served to fill Charles Albert

with false hopes. On the 22d of July, the whole Austrian force descended on La Corona, and carried the lines of Rivoli. The lines of Somma Campagna were also carried after a brave resistance, and the Austrians became masters of the whole territory formerly held by the Piedmontese, except Peschiera. On the 25th, Charles Albert, at the head of thirty thousand men, advanced against the Austrians, at Somma Campagna. There was fought the decisive battle. It lasted from five in the morning till five in the evening. The Piedmontese fought desperately, and the victory was only decided for the Austrians by the arrival of Radetski, with a reserve of twenty thousand men. Charles Albert retreated to Milan, with the remnant of his army, and preparations were made for a grand stand at that city; but he capitulated to Radetski, and, on the 7th, the Austrians again ruled in Milan, and things returned to their old state. From the oppressive measures taken by Radetski, there is no fear that the people of Lombardy will cease to detest Austrian rule.

Venice, forsaken by all her allies, maintained her independence. Besieged and blockaded by land and sea, her people firmly upheld their republican government, and submitted to the greatest privations with a fortitude that commanded the admiration of their enemies. Manini was the republican chief, and he nobly sustained the reputation he had acquired as a pure and able republican. Several encounters took place between the Austrians and the heroic defenders of Venice, in which the latter were successful. The number of their troops was about twenty thousand, many of the legions of which were commanded by skilful French officers. Fourteen hundred cannon were mounted on thirty-six forts on the shore, opposite the city. The siege continued more than five months, and then the Venetians surrendered on favourable terms.

In the mean time, Charles Albert was making extensive preparations for another campaign. He proclaimed his resolve to drive the Austrians beyond the Alps, or perish in the attempt. The conflict was obstinate, but of short duration; and on the plains of Verelli, the hopes of Northern Italy were completely overthrown. Three successive battles were fought; the last on the 4th of March, 1849. Fifty thousand men on each side were engaged. Charles Albert and his followers displayed the most

undaunted heroism, and the Sardinian king sought to die on the field, when he found that all was lost. But death would not be invited. The Piedmontese fled to the mountains; Charles Albert resigned the Sardinian crown to his son Victor Emanuel, and Austrian order was restored to Northern Italy.

In Rome, the liberal concessions of the pope made him very popular for a while. But the demands of the people went farther than agreed with the views or the intentions of their ruler. The pope signified to the chamber of deputies that they wanted too much, and that he would be compelled to defend his prerogatives against further encroachment. This symptom of reaction alarmed the Romans, and the breach between them and the pontiff widened every day. Popular outbreaks were of such frequent occurrence, that the pope began to regard the palace as an unsafe residence. On the 24th of November, 1848, the supreme pontiff, disguised as a servant of the Bavarian envoy, Count Spohr, left Rome, and hastened to the town of Gaeta, in the kingdom of Naples, where he became the guest of King Ferdinand. From Gaeta, the pope issued a manifesto, condemning the republicans of Rome, and explaining the reasons which induced his flight. He also nominated a governing commission, under the lead of Cardinal Castricane, to execute his orders in Rome. The people received the manifesto with the most profound contempt and indignation. The individuals appointed to administer the government prudently left the city as soon as possible.

A counter-proclamation was immediately issued by the deputies, and messengers sent to Gaeta to request the pope to return to Rome. The conditions which he demanded were so despotic that the people at once set about organizing a government for themselves. A day was appointed for the election of a constituent assembly to frame a constitution. The pope issued a protest against the election, and excommunicated all who should vote. But excommunication had no power to control the Romans, or prevent them from choosing their rulers. They laughed at it, and a number of cardinals joined them in censuring the protest. The election was conducted with order and regularity. When the constituent assembly first met, the question came up, what form of government should be adopted by the Roman states. The debate was lengthy, but was conducted

calmly and with an earnest desire to reach a wise conclusion.

On the morning of the 9th of February, 1849, it was decided that the form of government should be a pure democracy, and take the name of the Roman republic, and that the pope should be guarantied his spiritual power only. Only five members out of one hundred and forty-four voted negatively. A provisional ministry had been appointed after the refusal of the pope to return to Rome, of which Armellini was the head. On the decision of the assembly in favour of a republic, he came forward and resigned his powers; but the assembly voted that he and his colleagues should retain their authority for the time. The proclamation of the republic was received with every mark of joy and satisfaction by the Romans.

In the mean time, the pope remained at Gaeta, uncertain what course to pursue. To call in foreign aid would be at once to own that he had lost the confidence and attachment of that people whom he had asserted were only misled by bad men. Yet this course he was compelled to adopt, or remain in exile. He appealed to the Catholic powers of Europe; and Austria, Spain, Naples, and even republican France answered him favourably. The government of France fitted out an expedition, the destination and purpose of which were shrouded in mystery. On the 22d of April, 1849, an army, under General Oudinot, set sail from Marseilles, and landed at Civita Vecchia. Before embarking, a proclamation was issued, the words of which led the French troops and the Italian people to believe that the army was designed to uphold the republican cause.

The Austrians, under Marshal Winpan, entered the papal states on the north; an army of Neapolitans advanced on the south, and a body of Spaniards landed at Micino. Rome was surrounded; but her brave people were active in preparation for defence, and firm in maintaining their republic. One soul seemed to animate the whole people, and the old Roman spirit was awake. To give greater efficiency to the government, a triumvirate was appointed, consisting of Armellini, Saffi, and Mazzini, the ruling spirit of the republicans. For a time, victory favoured the Roman arms. The Neapolitans were routed at Palestrina, and the Austrians and Spaniards did not hurry their march. The struggle now lay between Rome and France.

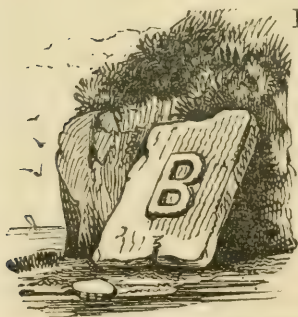
Oudinot soon arrived before Rome, and sent a deputation to the government. They declared the object of the French invasion was to prevent Austrian interference and restore the pope to his dominions, and they demanded that the gates of the city should be thrown open to the French army. The government rejected the interference of the French, and refused to admit them. Preparations for defence were made on an extensive scale, and Oudinot was told that Rome would resist his entrance with all her power. The attack was then begun by the French. The defenders fought bravely, and, after a long struggle, the French were repulsed, with the loss of six hundred killed and a large number of wounded and prisoners. The general himself was nearly taken. The Romans were under the command of General Garibaldi and other able men. The French fell back to wait for reinforcements, which soon arrived, and Oudinot found himself at the head of a powerful army, supplied with every requisite for a siege.

To a second summons to surrender, the triumvirs returned an answer full of the indignant feeling of the Romans. An eloquent appeal was made to the French soldiers by Mazzini; but they had been defeated, and that drowned all thought of aiding the Romans. The attack was renewed on the 3d of June, and the besieged met it obstinately. Battle after battle was fought, and the siege continued until the 30th of June, when the triumvirs, considering all further resistance hopeless, ceased hostilities and virtually surrendered. The last acts of the assembly were to order the constitution to be engraved on marble and deposited in the capital, and that funeral services should be celebrated for those who had fallen in defence of the city. The French army then entered Rome, and the republican leaders fled. General Garibaldi, at the head of a small force, took refuge in the mountains, from whence he subsequently escaped to England. Thus was the Roman republic, the free choice of the whole people, crushed by foreign soldiery, and those, too, from a republic. The pope could not be induced to return to Rome for some time after its capture, and when he did he was coldly received.



COLONEL FREMONT.

ACQUISITION OF CALIFORNIA AND ITS GOLD MINES.



BEFORE the commencement of hostilities between the United States and Mexico, in 1846, the territory of Upper California formed the north-western portion of the republic of Mexico. The principal portion of its inhabitants were Indians, on account of whose hostility the interior of the territory was but imperfectly known. The settlements of the descendants of the Spaniards and Mexicans were either situated upon the

coast of the Pacific, or a short distance in the interior. These small villages and towns had grown up around the missions established at different places by the Jesuits, at an early period. The town of Monterey, situated upon the coast, was the principal port; while Ciudad de los Angeles, situated about twenty-five miles from the coast, was the largest town, and the capital of the territory. The only articles of export were hides and tallow, and the commerce of the country was monopolized by a few American and English merchants, residing at Monterey, San Diego, and San Francisco. These ports were often the resort of vessels of war cruising in the Pacific, and also of some whalers. Portions of the country, situated principally in the valley of San Josè, and the neighbourhood of Los Angeles, were considered worth cultivating; and, at Los Angeles, great quantities of grapes and various fruits were raised. But the greater portion of the territory was thought to be only fit for grazing purposes, and, consequently, the population increased very slowly.

Intelligence of the beginning of hostilities upon the Rio Grande having been received, on the 2d of July, Commodore Sloat, commander of the United States Pacific squadron, arrived at Monterey, and on the 7th, the American flag was hoisted over that town, amid the cheers of the Americans, and a salute of twenty-one guns from the ships in the harbour. A proclamation was then issued to the inhabitants of California, by Commodore Sloat. On the 8th, the American flag was hoisted at San Francisco, by Commander Montgomery, of the sloop-of-war Portsmouth, and a volunteer corps of resident Americans was immediately organized. On the same day, purser Fauntleroy, of the frigate Savannah, was ordered to organize a company of dragoons, volunteers from the ships and the citizens on shore, to reconnoitre the country, and keep the communication open between Monterey and the more northern posts occupied by the Americans. Captain Fremont, who had arrived in California by an overland journey, with a party of about one hundred and seventy men, took possession of Sonoma, one of the most northerly posts in the territory, and, leaving a small garrison at that place, marched for the mission of San Juan, about thirty miles east of Monterey. He arrived there, and took possession of the mission without opposition, about one hour before

the arrival of purser Fauntleroy, who had marched to accomplish the same object. At San Juan were found nine pieces of cannon, two hundred old muskets, twenty kegs of powder, and sixty thousand pounds of cannon-shot. Both parties marched to Monterey, the next day after taking possession of the mission.

The fortification of Monterey was commenced immediately after the raising of the United States flag. On the 23d, Commodore Sloat sailed in the *Levant* for the United States, leaving Commodore Stockton in command of the Pacific squadron. Immediately after, the *Cyane*, Commodore Dupont, with Captain Fremont and volunteers on board, sailed for San Diego, and the frigate *Congress*, Commodore Stockton, sailed for San Pedro, the port of Los Angeles, the capital of California. The frigate *Savannah* remained at Monterey, and the sloop-of-war *Portsmouth* at San Francisco. Thus all the different ports of the territory were secured.

On the 17th of August, Commodore Stockton issued a proclamation, declaring California in the full and peaceable possession of the United States, and authorizing the election of civil officers throughout the country. Colonel Fremont soon afterwards went northward, with only forty men, intending to recruit and return immediately. Early in September, Commodore Stockton withdrew all his forces, and proceeded with the squadron to San Francisco. Capt. Gillespie was left in command of the *Pueblo de los Angeles*, with about thirty riflemen; and Lieut. Talbot in command at Santa Barbara, with only nine men. Scarcely had Commodore Stockton arrived at San Francisco, when he received information that all the country below Monterey was in arms, and the Mexican flag again hoisted.

Commodore Stockton, having come down in the *Congress* from San Francisco, then took command of the sailors, and dragging by hand six of the ship's guns, he marched towards Los Angeles. At the rancho Sepulvida, they found the Californians prepared to meet them. A desperate battle ensued, in which the Californians were totally routed, with great loss. Commodore Stockton, having acquired a sufficient number of horses, mounted his men, and organized his force for land operations. From this battle, the war was waged in a series of skirmishes, until January, 1847.

In the mean time a party of three hundred men under Gene-

ral Kearny, left Santa Fe, in New Mexico, on the 25th of September, 1846, and marched for California. Meeting a small return party from California, General Kearny received information that the country had been completely subdued by Commodore Stockton, and in consequence of this information, he sent back two hundred dragoons under Major Sumner, to remain in New Mexico. With one hundred dragoons, and two mountain howitzers, under Captain Moore, General Kearny continued his march, and on the 2d of December reached Warner's ranche, the frontier settlement of California, on the road leading to Sonora. Finding a body of Californians mounted, ready to dispute the passage, the small advance guard made a furious charge upon them, and being supported by the dragoons, the enemy gave way, still keeping up their fire. Captain Moore pursued the Californians for about half a mile, when they halted, upon seeing an interval between the advance under Captain Moore and the rest of the party. They charged with their lances, and did considerable execution ; but the rest of the Americans, coming up, drove them from the field. The loss of the Americans was thirty-four, in killed and wounded. The march of General Kearny's troops was then continued, and on the 12th, they arrived at San Diego, upon the Pacific coast.

On the 29th of December, General Kearny left San Diego, with about six hundred men. This force marched without any opposition, until the 8th of January, when they found the Californians, to the number of six hundred mounted men, with four pieces of artillery, under the command of General Flores, stationed upon the heights which commanded the crossing of the river San Gabriel. The necessary dispositions were soon made by General Kearny, and his whole force then forded the river, carried the heights, and drove the enemy from them, after an action of an hour and a half. The Americans encamped on the field till the next morning.

On the next day, the 9th of January, the march was resumed. When General Kearny's force reached the plains of the Mesa, they found the Californians again prepared to dispute their progress. The artillery opened upon them in front, and, after hovering near and skirmishing for about two hours, the Californians concentrated their force and charged the left flank of the Americans ; but they were quickly repulsed. They

then retired, and on the following morning the victorious troops, under General Kearny, entered the "City of the Angels," without opposition.

These two battles decided the contest, and, on the 13th of January, the enemy capitulated to Lieutenant-colonel Fremont, near San Fernando. Peace being restored, General Kearny was appointed to the post of civil and military governor of California, and he issued a proclamation absolving the Californians from their allegiance to Mexico.

The conquest of California by the United States troops gave an impetus to emigration to that country, and things began to wear a livelier aspect. At the close of the war with Mexico, the United States became possessed of California as far south as the thirty-second degree of latitude, and then the settlement of the country proceeded more rapidly. Colonel Mason was appointed to exercise the functions of governor and military commandant, and tranquillity reigned throughout the territory, until an event occurred which gave a new spring to affairs, and changed the whole appearance of the country in a few years.

In the latter part of February, 1848, a mechanic, named James Marshall, was employed in building a saw-mill for John A. Sutter, Esq., on the south branch of a river known in California as the American Fork, some fifty miles from New Helvetia, or Sutter's Fort. While employed in cutting a mill-race or canal for this improvement, Mr. Marshall discovered the pieces of gold as they glistened in the sunlight at the bottom of the sluices. Pieces of considerable size were taken from the water, and in a few days gold to the amount of one hundred and fifty dollars was removed in this manner. The labourers on the works, mostly Mormons, soon became satisfied of its precious nature, and the news spread rapidly about the country. Examinations were prosecuted at other points along the stream, and almost everywhere with success. Reports of a most marvellous nature soon reached the coast touching these mines. Their apparent extravagance created incredulity, and the public attention was not fully called to the subject until gold-dust or grain-gold was brought into the market in considerable quantities for sale. Doubt soon became belief, and a change, almost magical in its nature, pervaded the whole population. Lawyers, doctors, clergymen, farmers, mechanics, merchants,

sailors, and soldiers, left their legitimate occupations to embark on a business where fortunes were to be made in a few weeks. Villages and districts, where all had been bustle, industry, and improvement, were soon left without male population. Mechanics, merchants, and magistrates were alike off to the mines, and all kinds of useful occupation, except gold-digging, were here apparently at an end.

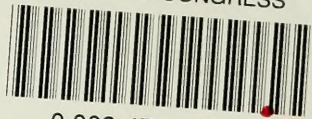
At one time only seven persons were left in the town of San Francisco, in consequence of the rush for the gold diggings. The price of all kinds of labour and of merchandise became enormously high. The news of the discovery was not long in reaching the States, and then began the influx of immigration. Every route leading to the El Dorado was filled with anxious ones, and the shortest road thither became the general demand. Companies for mining purposes were formed in all directions. The excitement was general and intense.

In the latter part of the year 1848, the town of San Francisco had increased wonderfully in size, and new towns were laid out at various points between that port and the mines. Continued discoveries of gold at various places on the tributaries of the Sacramento added new fuel to keep up the heat of excitement, and emigrants from the United States, Chili, Mexico, and even China, poured into San Francisco, or came by the overland journey from the Atlantic states of the Union. The old towns and villages began to give signs of progress, and, as the ports began to be the resort of a great number of vessels of all nations, bringing great quantities of merchandise for the expected increase of demand, the towns situated in the fertile valleys of the interior attracted some who preferred trusting to the sure reward of trade, or tilling the ground, to bearing the fatigues of gold-digging. From being a half-settled, half-explored grazing country, California became the centre of attraction for all nations, and one of the most important commercial countries on the earth.

THE END.

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